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THE

AMERICAN

Journal of Education.

EDITED BY

HENRY BARNARD, LL.D.

VOLUME XIV.

NEW SERIES. VOLUME IV.

HARTFORD, H. BARNARD.

LONDON: TRÜBNER & CO., 12 PATERNOSTER ROW
1864.

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THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 9.]

No. XXXIV.—MARCH, 1864.

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INTRODUCTION.

We shall devote the whole of the first number of this volume, (for 1864,) and a portion of each succeeding number, until we have finished the subject, to a condensed summary of the proceedings of the various Associations, which have been organized in this country on a National or State basis, to advance the cause of education generally, and particularly to give increased efficiency to the profession of teaching. We begin with the NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, the latest formed, and which promises to enlist a large number of American teachers in a work which is peculiarly their own. The nature and objects of such an organization are admirably set forth in the Address prepared by Professor Russell, for the Convention in which the Association originated, and with which we shall introduce the subject—after devoting a few words to its author.

WILLIAM RUSSELL, the early, constant, and able advocate of the professional organization and action of teachers, was born in Glasgow, Scotland, in 1798. Educated in the Latin School and University of his native city, and thoroughly imbued with the spirit and philosophical views of Prof. George Jardine, (author of "*Philosophical Education*,") he came to this country in 1817, and commenced his life-long work of teacher and educator, in Georgia. In every place and state where he has since lived, he has labored with pen, voice, and personal influence to bring teachers together for consultation and united action. By his "*Suggestions on Education*," published in New Haven, in 1823, while he was Principal of the New Township Academy, and the Hopkins Grammar School; by his "*Manual of Mutual Instruction*," in 1826; by the "*American Journal of Education*," Boston, 1826–9, his advocacy of "*Teachers' Associations*," before a county convention of teachers at Dorchester, (Mass.,) in 1830, and of "*Infant and Primary Schools*," in Boston, in the same year; by his "*Journal of Instruction*," in 1831, the organ of the Philadelphia Association of Teachers, which he projected during his connection with a School for Young Ladies' in Germantown, and afterward in Philadelphia; by his "*Lectures on Normal Training*,"

in his Normal School at Reed's Ferry, in New Hampshire, and at Lancaster, Mass., since published in Barnard's "*American Journal of Education;*" by his "*Address on the Education of Females,*" at Andover, Mass., in 1843; by his "*Suggestions on Teachers' Institutes,*" first issued in 1846, and his annual labors and instructions in those eminently professional schools for twenty years past; by his published lectures on "*Duties of Teachers,*" in 1850, on the "*Encouragements of Teachers,*" in 1853, and on the "*Organization of Teachers as a Profession,*" before the New Hampshire State Teachers' Association, in 1849, and the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association, in 1856, and the National Teachers' Convention, in 1857, Professor Russell has done noble service to the cause of American education, and earned the profound respect and gratitude of every American teacher. How touchingly does he allude to himself and his compeers, in the closing paragraph of his address at Philadelphia, in 1857.

"To have dwelt so long on a single point, amid the many to be carried by the establishment of a national association of teachers, may be pardoned to one who, when he looks round such meetings as the present, in search of those with whom he may most intimately sympathize, finds them few and far between, and all among fellow laborers of forty years' service in the occupation. To himself and his "co-mates" any personal considerations of honor to be derived from the business of teaching becoming an acknowledged profession, can be but small inducement to move in this proposal. To him and to them the lease of active life is drawing to a close. But the sight of so many young and earnest faces, on occasions like the present, with all the bright associations which they suggest in reference to coming years, seems to make it worth while to put forth the hand with what energy is left it, toward the accomplishment of an object in which the prosperity of the future is so largely involved, for the capable and the faithful teachers who are now commencing their professional career."

I. NATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF TEACHERS.

AN ADDRESS TO THE CONVENTION OF TEACHERS OF THE UNITED STATES, HELD IN PHILADELPHIA, AUGUST 27, 1857, FOR THE PURPOSE OF FORMING A NATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF THEIR PROFESSION.

BY WILLIAM RUSSELL,

[Editor of American Journal of Education, 1826-8.]

FELLOW TEACHERS:—We are met on a great occasion. For the first time in the history of our country, the teachers of youth have assembled as a distinct professional body, representing its peculiar relations to all parts of our great national Union of States. The event is a most auspicious one, as regards the intellectual and moral interests of the whole community of which, as citizens, we are members; and, to ourselves, professionally and individually, it opens a view of extended usefulness, in efficient action, such as never yet has been disclosed to us.

We meet not as merely a company of friends and well wishers to education, one of the great common interests of humanity, in which we are happy to coöperate with philanthropic minds and hearts of every class and calling; but we have at length recognized our peculiar duty to come forward and take our own appropriate place as the immediate agents and appointed organs of whatever measures are best adapted to promote the highest interests of society, by the wider diffusion of whatever benefits are included in the whole range of human culture. In stepping forward to take the professional position now universally accorded to us, we do so in no exclusive or selfish spirit. We are, in fact, only complying with the virtual invitation given us, by all who feel an interest in the advancement of education, to assume, in regular form, the acknowledged responsibilities of our office, as guardians of the mental welfare of the youth of our country, responsible to the whole community for the fidelity and efficiency with which we discharge our trust. The liberal measures recently adopted in so many of our States for the establishment of permanent systems of public education; the generous recognition, now so general, of the value of the teacher's office and his daily labors; the warm reception offered to every form of teachers' associations—from those which represent whole States down to the local gatherings in our towns and villages—all intimate the universal readiness of society to welcome the formation of a yet more

extensive professional union of teachers—of one co-extensive our national interests and relations.

We meet the invitation, not as a mere professional recogni entitling us to withdraw from the ground which we have hitl occupied, in common with the friends of education, whether o learned professions or of other occupations, in the promotion o interests, and, by an exclusive organization, to cut ourselves off all communication beyond the limited sphere of a close corpora It is in no such spirit that we would act. But we do feel that t is a duty devolving on us, as teachers, which we desire to fi We feel that, as a professional body, we are distinctly called o form a national organization, that we may be the better enable meet the continually enlarging demands of our vocation for hi personal attainments in the individual, and for more ample qu cations adequately to fill the daily widening sphere of professi action.

We wish, as teachers, to reap whatever benefits our med brethren derive from their national association, in opportunities communication for mutual aid and counsel. We desire to see nually a professional gathering, such as may fairly represent the structors of every grade of schools and higher institutions, throu out the United States. We hope to see a numerous delegation, such meetings, from every educating State in the Union, of the m who, in their respective State associations of teachers, are alrea responding to the manifest demand for distinct appropriate prof sional action, on the part of those on whom devolves the immedi practical business of instruction.

Teaching is, in our day, an occupation lacking neither honor n emolument. Those who pursue this employment are in duty bou to recognize the position which is so liberally assigned them. T vocation is well entitled to all the aid and support which an ackno edged professional rank can confer upon it. The personal intere of every individual who pursues the calling, or who means to ado it, is concerned in every measure which tends to elevate its chara ter or extend its usefulness. Every teacher who respects himsel and whose heart is in his work, will respond, we think, with alacrit to the call which the establishment of such an association as w propose makes upon him for his best efforts in its aid.

From the formation of a NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS we expect great NATIONAL BENEFITS:

1. As regards *wider* and *juster views of education*, and *correspond ing methods of instruction.*

In a progressive community like ours, amid the vast and rapid developments of science by which our times are characterized, and the universal craving for yet better modes of human culture, to imagine that we have already attained to perfection in our modes of education, would be absurd. The statistics of society proclaim the falsity of such an opinion. The daily records of our race tell too plainly the sad story of our deficiencies and our failures, in the prevalent feeble organizations of body, and the imperfect health, which we still owe to our culpable neglect of proper educational training, by which physical vigor and efficiency might be, in great measure, secured to every human being. The teacher, in our large cities, at least, daily finds himself compelled to limit his intellectual requirements to the condition of many minds incapable of sustaining lengthened or vigorous application, or of retaining the rudimental germs which it is his desire to implant. Of our acknowledged defective moral education, it is unnecessary to speak. Throughout our country, the parent is appealing to the teacher, and the teacher to the parent, for efficient efforts which may bring about a better state of things. Who will venture, in such circumstances, the assertion that we are already perfect?

The whole ground of education needs a thorough survey and revision, with a view to much more extensive changes and reforms than have yet been attempted. The cry for more healthful, more invigorating, more inspiring, more effective modes of culture, comes up from all classes of society, on behalf of the young who are its treasured hope. A truer and deeper investigation is everywhere needed in regard to the constitution, the capabilities, and the wants of man, equally in his temporal and his eternal relations.

Adverting thus to the acknowledged need of a renovation in the form and character of education, we would not be understood as desiring the indiscriminate subversion of existing modes of culture, or of the institutions to which we have been so largely indebted for whatever degree of mental attainment has characterized the past, or benefits the present. It belongs to others than teachers to propose those rash and headlong changes, unsanctioned by true philosophy or stable theory, which have demolished without reconstructing, and whose toppling fabrics have served the sole purpose of forming the sepulchral monuments of "zeal without knowledge."

No: one of the surest and best results of a great national association of teachers, will be the careful retention of all unquestionable good residuum gained by the sure filtration of experience; another will be the building up, to yet nobler heights of beneficial

influence, the high places of all true learning. Room can be ma for the cultivation of all invigorating and purifying influences human development, without the sacrifice of one valuable acqui tion; or, rather, with the addition of many, which a more gen nurture will certainly introduce. But it is high time that the bro experience and observation of teachers, the tried servants of huma ity, in all the relations of culture, should unite to claim a hearing the great subject of their daily duties and endeavors; and that the voice should have its weight in the adoption of the successive ste which the ceaseless advances of knowledge will always require the hands of education. A harmonious coöperation of education skill with scientific progress and parental interests, may thus be ful secured for the enlargement and fertilizing of the whole field mental and moral culture.

A professional association, founded on the broad basis which v now contemplate, will necessarily give unity and effect to commun cations expressing the views and bearing the sanction of such body; and instructors throughout our country will thus have an o portunity of contributing more widely, and more effectively, to th furtherance of whatever good is embraced in the whole range education, whether in its immediate or its remotest results.

2. From the establishment of a national society of teachers, w may justly expect a large amount of *professional benefit to its mem bers*. Fellow teachers! we are not assembled to boast of the dig nity of our vocation, or of the intellectual eminence of those wh pursue it; but rather, in the spirit of faithful and earnest endeavo to do what we can to render ourselves, individually and collectively more worthy of its honors, by becoming more capable of fulfillin its duties.

Contemplating then, in this sober light, the aggregate of suc learning and skill as the annual communications of a national reünio of teachers must contribute to our advancement individually, i professional qualifications, we may well congratulate one another o the advantages anticipated as accruing from such occasions. No need these advantages be temporary or evanescent. A national as sociation of teachers will necessarily give rise to an appropriat organ of communication between its members themselves, and th community in general. By this means, the fruits of the matures minds in the ranks of our profession, in the ample discussion of the great primary questions of education, may be daily reaped by the youngest of our corps, while the zeal and enthusiasm, and the ar dent aspirations of the youngest, may communicate life and fire to all.

But it is not merely in our professional relations that a national association will benefit us. It will be an invaluable aid to us, as students of the sciences which we teach. We arrogate nothing for our profession, when we say that it includes among its members men of the highest attainments—not to say eminence—in the various departments of science and literature. Their communications with us will be instruction of the highest order, to which it will be a peculiar privilege to listen. If there be any doubt on this point, in any mind, we will verify our assertion by pointing to such men as Agassiz and Guyot, who, in the true spirit of the teacher's vocation, have, for years, so generously dispensed the rich fruits of their own surpassing attainments for the benefit of their fellow teachers, throughout their adopted country. Passing by, however, those luminaries of the upper sphere of science, have we not many in all parts of the Union, who, in comparison of such names, would not be unwilling to be ranked but as among the "lesser lights," and who have no ambition beyond that of contributing their silent personal endeavor to the advancement of knowledge and to the instruction of youth, yet have minds fraught with untold wealth of acquirement, which they would readily lend for the profit and pleasure of others less amply furnished?

But to return to our strictly professional relations. Education is now studied both as a science and as an art. We have among us already, not only those who, by extensive acquirements, and professional skill, and special study, are amply competent to guide the minds of others in the path of philosophical investigation of the principles of education, and to exhibit, in actual application, the methods of instruction which spring from such principles: we have, already, the products of such minds, nurtured and matured in well endowed and well conducted professional seminaries, established by enlightened legislation, for the express purpose of furnishing such products in the persons of well-trained, capable, enlightened and successful teachers, of both sexes. With the aid of such minds, in addition to that of the many widely known individuals who have made a lifetime's business of education, and daily live amid an atmosphere of grateful feeling, emanating from the surrounding hearts of more than one generation which their labors have enlightened and elevated—with such aid to rely on, can we be accounted rash if we say we feel that we are ready to meet the exigency of our time which calls us to unite, under the sanction of our free political institutions, for the establishment of a professional society dedicated to the effective advancement of education by its own executive agents

Other associations of a more general character, which are no engaged in promoting the interests of education, we recognize w respect and gratitude. Many of us have helped to found and maintain these; and the thought of superseding or impairing th is the last that would enter our minds. But in our individ capacity as teachers, and in our relations as—many, perhaps m of us—members of State associations of teachers, we feel that t time is fully come when our own professional interests, and the ec cational progress of our country, demand the institution of a stric professional association of teachers, embracing in its scope a design all who are engaged in our occupation throughout the Unit States, and having for its aim a faithful and persevering endeavor enlarge the views, unite the hearts, strengthen the hands, and pr mote the interests of all its members.

The annual meetings of such an association as we contemplat would form a most attractive scene, not only as one of extensi fellowship and sympathy in common labors and common interest but one of peculiar and elevated intellectual advancement and grati cation. At one hour we might enjoy an enlightened exposition discussion of a great principle of education, in which we might b benefitted by all the lights of philosophic theory, verified and a tested by practical experience. At another, we might experienc similar benefit from the statement and illustration of methods an subjects of instruction. Again, we might have opportunity of liste ing to vital suggestions on moral culture, on appropriate physic exercise and training, on the control and direction of schools, o the classification of pupils, on motives to application, on coöpera tion with parental influence, on the teacher's position in society, an in short, on every topic of importance usually advanced at ou teachers' meetings—but with this superior advantage, that we shoul hear the results of experience and observation from a much wide circle than in the case of associations of more limited range of action.

All the subjects which have been mentioned, and many others, might be intrusted to committees appointed to exhibit or discus them in regular forms, by which we might avoid, when we thought proper, the formality of set lectures, and avoid, also, the comparative loss of time in mere formalities of debate, which often consume the precious hours of anniversary meetings designed for the despatch of actual business, or the investigation of important subjects. Our scientific associations, with their strict classification of subjects, their brief practical papers, and special committees, set an instruc

tive example in these respects which a body so large as our National Association of Teachers would find it advantageous to follow. The papers presented at our annual meetings, by the committees respectively appointed, together with the reports of discussions and other proceedings, would easily furnish sufficient matter for a regular issue in the periodical form, so as to provide a useful manual for the teacher's table, and enable absent members to receive thus the benefit of our annual meetings.

One important advantage to be derived from such an association as we propose, may I be permitted to dwell upon more fully? I refer to the distinct recognition of teaching as a profession. This is a result, on the desirableness of which all teachers, I believe, are agreed. On the question of how it is to be brought about, there is not a similar unanimity; and this diversity of opinion is, in part, owing to current mistakes regarding the proper distinction between a profession and any ordinary vocation.

In the liberal courtesy of popular usage among us, we are too apt to extend the designation of "profession" to any regular pursuit or calling whatever. the term "profession," being one of university origin and application, is not duly appreciated, or properly discriminated, when adopted in current phraseology. The word recalls the ancient practice in colleges of examining a student when he "professed" to be prepared for advancement from one stage or form of study to another, or to have finished the requisite studies of a given course. The individual thus professing himself qualified to enter on new relations, was subjected to rigorous examination, and approved or rejected, according to his attainments.

A student, who judged himself competent, after the completion of the regular course of study in law, medicine, or theology, to stand an examination in any of these subjects, with a view to receiving a certificate of qualifications, in the form of license, degree, or diploma, "professed" himself ready for such examination. The three pursuits above named, being the only ones for which, in former times, a course of preparatory study in the "*literæ humaniores*," (*liberal* arts,) was deemed indispensable, came to be figuratively designated as the "liberal professions." On other vocations persons of any class might enter at will, but for admission to the ranks of the liberal callings a previous profession of qualifications, and correspondent examination and license, were indispensable.

Before entering on the practice of any of the professions mentioned, the candidate had still another process of examination to undergo, at the hands of the actual members of the profession, as

is virtually the case at the present day when a lawyer is admitted the bar, a physician to the membership of a State or national medi association, or a licentiate is ordained for the ministry.

Whenever it shall please the members of any of our State p fessional associations of teachers to adopt a similar practice, a subject all candidates for membership to examination as a conditi of receiving a certificate of membership, the vocation of teachi will be legally entitled, under such circumstances, to become and be recognized as a "profession," in virtue of the candidate bei found, on examination, qualified to discharge its duties as he *pr fessed* to be.

The supposition that a State association of teachers, when on formed and recognized as such by the legislature of the State, nee any further legislative sanction to enable it to confer a certificate membership, is a mistake which has unduly delayed the prop action of such associations in more than one instance. It is f such an association itself, not the State, to say whether it sha become a "close corporation," an exclusive, examining, and sel licensing body, or not. No act of legislation can constitute teac ing a profession. The thing depends on the will and action of th association itself. The processes of examining candidates and c conferring a certificate of membership, on satisfactory examinatio are the only prerequisites after the legislature of a given State ha conferred a charter of incorporation on a teachers' association. Th case has its perfect analogy in that of a State medical associatio or in that of admission to practice at the bar.

The action of State associations of teachers, wherever these ar formed, might speedily effect the issue so desirable for all who fol low the vocation of teaching as the intended business of their lives To such persons it would seem but an act of simple justice, that a distinction should be made between them and those who take up the employment in a transient way, and for temporary convenience only. To young men of liberal education and of corresponding acquirements, who voluntarily forego the advantage of adopting more lucrative occupations, and follow, for life, the exhausting labor of teaching, the regular recognition of instruction as a liberal profession, is due as an equivalent for opportunities relinquished, and as an expression of general sentiment on the value of the benefits conferred on the community, by the services of those whose own education has opened to them the way to the highest positions in society.

The professional examination and recognition of candidates for

the teacher's office, seem equally due, as a matter of justice, to instructors as a body confessedly competent to the task of judging of the fitness of individuals for the office which they themselves sustain; and in all matters pertaining to which, they ought to be better qualified to judge than the members of any other profession can be. A certificate of competency to teach, warranted by a teachers' association, ought, moreover, to be a far more satisfactory passport to employment, than a similar document from any other source, even when that source is official, and sanctioned by law. Were teachers to come forward and claim their proper position in this respect, persons engaged in other pursuits would, in all probability, gladly resign the onerous task which is now so commonly imposed on them, and free themselves from a responsibility always irksome, partly from the apprehension of doing injustice, perhaps, to a diffident candidate, and partly, in not a few cases, from the consciousness of incompetency to judge with exactness of details of knowledge which do not come within the sphere of the examiner's personal information.

A national association of teachers, when duly organized and incorporated, might perform a valuable service to the interests of education, both for teachers and the community in general, by assuming the responsibility of admitting or rejecting candidates for membership, and for our various grades of schools, by some fixed and universal standard. Certificates founded on such a principle would possess a high value as professional documents, whose currency would properly be co-extensive with the Union, and would insure to their possessors immediate acceptance in their profession, wherever they might establish themselves, while the security in such cases would be equally valuable to the community, as the assurance of obtaining a competent teacher in whatever grade of schools the applicant might be employed.

The question, how would the proposed examination of teachers be conducted? has been started as an obstacle to such a course of procedure as is now proposed. The answer to this question, whether put with reference to a State or national association, is, we admit, that, *at first*, in the actual condition of things among us, as regards the whole matter of education, it can not be expected that admission to membership can take place in virtue of the process of examination, in the absence of a preëxisting recognized authority; and not till such authority exists, by act of the association, can any regular examination be conducted. As a self-constituted and self-perpetuating body—so far as examination and certificates are concerned—it must commence its operations on the basis of such mem-

bers as it consists of, previous to instituting examinations. Th would render it necessary to make a beginning by constituti every individual whose membership dated from the commenc ment of the association, a "passed" member, at the end of thr years, or any other definite period of satisfactory length. All su sequent admissions to membership, in the capacity of passed mer bers, might be regularly conducted by committees appointed by t association, for the various grades of schools. Certified membe of State associations would of course, be entitled, on joining th national association, to certificates of membership in the latter, b personal introduction from their State association.

The duty of conducting professional examinations has, by som been supposed a thing impracticable, from its onerous demands o time and care. But the value necessarily attached to a State or national certificate of examination and qualifications, would make i worth a reasonable sum as compensation for time and trouble on th part of the examiner; and a fixed rate could easily be assigned a the proper limit of expense incurred in such cases.

All precautions and securities usually adopted on behalf of othe associations, as regards admission or exclusion, on proper moral grounds, must be presupposed as applied with reference to member ship in a society of teachers. A right professional spirit would doubtless be an adequate protection in this respect.

In the way now proposed, or in any equivalent to it, the end desired might, without insuperable difficulty, be attained, and the best interests of our calling and of the community be effectually promoted. A powerful incitement to professional study and to professional diligence would thus be held up. A definite and an honorable rank would thus also be assigned to every worthy member of the profession.

But, whatever disposal may be made of the subject of professional rank and recognition for teachers, the great considerations of personal duty in regard to associated and united effort for the advancement of education, are the subjects that lie immediately before us. Fellow teachers, we are happy, we are honored, in being called to become the first movers in the contemplated national association. Let the record of this day tell, by the unanimity and efficiency of our procedure, and by the beneficent spirit of our endeavors, how faithfully we have labored in our part of the wide field of human welfare. May the Wisdom which cometh from above guide all our measures to the happiest results!*

* Mr. Russell being unable, on account of illness, to be present at the convention, the preceding address was read by one of the members, at the evening session.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PROCEEDINGS OF CONVENTION FOR ORGANIZATION.

PHILADELPHIA, *August* 26, 1857.

IN response to the following call addressed "To the Teachers of the United States," by the Presidents of ten State Teachers' Associations, a number of teachers and educators from various parts of the Union assembled in the Hall of the Controllers of Public Schools, in Philadelphia, on the 26th August, 1857, for the purpose of organizing a NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

To the Teachers of the United States.

The eminent success which has attended the establishment and operations of the several State Teachers' Associations in this country, is the source of mutual congratulations among all friends of Popular Education. To the direct agency, and the diffused influence of these Associations, more, perhaps, than to any other cause, are due the manifest improvement of schools in all their relations, the rapid intellectual and social elevation of teachers as a class, and the vast development of public interest in all that concerns the education of the young.

That the State Associations have already accomplished great good, and that they are destined to exert a still broader and more beneficent influence, no wise observer will deny.

Believing that what has been done for States by State Associations may be done for the whole country by a National Association, we, the undersigned, invite our fellow-teachers throughout the United States to assemble in Philadelphia, on the 26th day of August next, for the purpose of organizing a NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

We cordially extend this invitation to all *practical teachers* in the North, the South, the East, and the West, who are willing to unite in a general effort to promote the educational welfare of our country, by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds, and by distributing among all the accumulated experiences of all, who are ready to devote their energies and contribute of their means to advance the dignity, respectability, and usefulness of their calling; and who, in fine, believe that the time has come when the teachers of the nation should gather into one great Educational Brotherhood.

As the permanent success of any association depends very much upon the auspices attending its establishment, and the character of the organic laws it adopts, it is hoped that all parts of the Union will be largely represented at the inauguration of the proposed enterprise.

T. W. VALENTINE,	President	New York State	Teachers'	Association.
D. B. HAGAR,	"	Massachusetts	"	"
W. T. LUCKY,	"	Missouri	"	"
J. TENNEY,	"	New Hampshire	"	"
J. G. MAY,	"	Indiana	"	"
W. ROBERTS,	"	Pennsylvania	"	"
C. PEASE,	"	Vermont	"	"
D. FRANKLIN WELLS,	"	Iowa	"	"
A. C. SPICER,	"	Wisconsin	"	"
S. WRIGHT,	"	Illinois	"	"

MAY 15, 1857.

The meeting was called to order by T. W. VALENTINE, of New York read the foregoing call, and stated the design contemplated by the proposed ization of a National Teachers' Association.

GENTLEMEN:—We assemble here to-day under circumstances of more ordinary interest. It is true that our meeting is not large in point of num our coming together has not been publicly announced in flaming advertisem nor is it at all probable that the quiet gathering of a body of teachers in great city will create such a sensation as a political or a commercial conve representing merely material interests, might do; and yet, in its results the great cause of education directly, and upon the well-being of our co ultimately, this meeting may prove as important as many of those of a pretentious character. We can not always see the end from the begin That noble band of patriots, who, more than eighty years ago, sent forth t world from this very city, the immortal Declaration of Independence, scarcely have realized the mighty influence which their action was destin exert upon our country, and the world. All experience, as well as the Wo Inspiration, admonishes us not to "despise the day of small things."

Twelve years ago, in the Central city of the Empire State, the first State sociation of Teachers in this country was formed. Some of you, gentle who were present at that meeting, and were instrumental in calling it, can remember the "fear and trembling" with which that enterprise was commen Until that period, the teachers of that State not only, but those of every o State as well, were almost entirely unacquainted with one another. A neighborhood, town, or county associations had indeed been formed; but great mass of teachers were merely isolated laborers, quietly engaged in duties of their profession, and without any community of feeling, or concer action. But what a mighty change have these few years wrought! Besid multitude of minor organizations, no fewer than *twenty-three* State Associat have already been formed, each doing a good work in its own sphere of la and to-day I trust we shall proceed to raise the cap-stone which shall bind these together in one solid and substantial structure.

But it may be asked, Have we not already in this country an organiza which should include all its teachers, viz., the "American Institute of Instructio I answer, No. That ancient and honorable body—the first of its kind in country, if not in the world—is essentially a *New England* enterprise, and o one of its meetings has ever been held beyond the limits of that section. It been doing a vast amount of good for more than twenty-five years, and whate may be the result of this meeting, I hope nothing will be said or done that be construed into hostility to that society. But its founders did not intend, do its present supporters desire, to extend its jurisdiction beyond the New E land States. Nor does the "American Association for the Advancement of E cation," present just such an organization as we desire and need, as that never intended to be wholly or mainly supported by teachers. What we w is, an association that shall embrace *all* the teachers of our *whole* country, whi shall hold its meetings at such central points as shall accommodate all sectio and combine all interests. And we need this, not merely to promote the in rests of our profession, but to gather up and arrange the educational statist of our country, so that the people may know what is really being done for Pu lic Education, and what yet remains to be done. I trust the time will co

when our government will have its Educational Department just as it now has one for Agriculture, for the Interior, for the Navy, &c. Surely these interests can not be more important than those which pertain to the intellectual and moral welfare of our people. But until this shall be done—as it must be, sooner or later—we need some such combination of effort as shall bring the teachers of this country more together, and *disseminate*, as well as collect, educational intelligence. Such an effort is imperatively demanded of us, and I trust we shall at once decide to go forward and devise measures to accomplish these great objects.

On motion of WILLIAM ROBERTS, of Pennsylvania, JAMES L. ENOS, of Iowa, was appointed Chairman.

On motion of J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, WILLIAM E. SHELDON, of Massachusetts, was appointed Secretary.

Rev. Dr. CHALLEN, of Phila., read a portion of Scripture and offered prayer.

D. B. HAGAR, of Massachusetts, offered the following resolutions:

Resolved, That in the opinion of teachers now present, as representatives of various parts of the United States, it is expedient to organize a "NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION."

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed by the Chair to prepare a Constitution adapted to such an Association.

The resolutions were discussed by Messrs. HAGAR, of Massachusetts; VALENTINE, of New York; HICKOK, of Pennsylvania; BULKLEY, of New York; CANN, of Georgia; CHALLEN, of Indiana; TAYLOR, of Delaware; WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania; BARRETT, of Illinois; WHELAN, of Missouri; and Rev. Dr. CHALLEN, of Philadelphia; all of whom favored the immediate organization of a National Teachers' Association.

The resolutions were unanimously adopted; and Messrs. HAGAR, CANN, and CHALLEN, were appointed the committee. Adjourned to 2 o'clock, P. M.

Afternoon Session.

Met in SANSOM STREET HALL.

Statements and remarks relating to schools and education in different States were made by LYNCH, of Delaware; BULKLEY, and VALENTINE, of New York; RICHARDS, of District of Columbia; ROBERTS, and HICKOK, of Pennsylvania; and SHELDON, of Massachusetts.

The committee, through D. B. HAGAR, submitted the draft of a Constitution, which after a free discussion and some amendments, was adopted.

On motion of T. W. VALENTINE, the chair appointed a committee of one from each State represented in the Convention, to nominate a list of officers.

Evening Session.

In the absence of Prof. RUSSELL, the address prepared by him, on "*The Professional Organization of the Teachers of the United States*," was read by Mr. VALENTINE.

A list of officers with Z. RICHARDS, Principal of the Union Academy, Washington, D. C., as President, was nominated by the committee appointed for this purpose, and elected by ballot.

President RICHARDS took the chair, and declared the National Teachers' Association duly organized.

After resolutions of thanks to parties who had made the session pleasant, and remarks from several members of the Association—pledging faithful efforts in behalf of the enterprise thus auspiciously inaugurated—the Association adjourned to meet at the call of the Board of Directors in August, 1858.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

ORIGINAL MEMBERS AT PHILADELPHIA, AUGUST 26, 1857.

NAMES.	RESIDENCE.
Z. Richards,	Washington, D. C.
T. W. Valentine,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
J. W. Bulkley,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
James Cruikshank,	Albany, N. Y.
D. B. Hagar,	Jamaica Plain, Mass.
James L. Enos,	Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
William E. Sheldon,	West Newton, Mass.
William Roberts,	Philadelphia, Penn.
James H. Sides,	Philadelphia, Penn.
James R. Challen,	Indiana.
Thomas M. Cann,	Delaware.
T. Clarkson Taylor,	Delaware.
J. F. Cann,	Georgia.
S. J. Wetherbee,	Delaware.
Paul Swift,	Pennsylvania.
William H. Batt,	Pennsylvania.
William Vodges,	Pennsylvania.
H. C. Hickok,	Pennsylvania.
J. P. Wickersham,	Millarsville, Penn.
Edward Brooks,	" Penn.
A. H. Laidlaw,	" Penn.
P. A. Cregar,	" Penn.
N. R. Lynch,	Delaware.
Thomas Granger,	Maryland.
E. W. Whelan,	Missouri.
J. W. Barnett,	Illinois.
Asa Jones,	Pennsylvania.
Wm. H. Hunter,	"
James H. MacBride,	
William Watson,	"
Gilbert Combs,	"
H. D. Gregory,	"
T. Saunderson,	"
William Jones,	"
W. A. Field,	"
J. D. Giddings,	Charlestown, South Carolina.
Robert Campbell,	Pennsylvania.
Aaron E. Hunter,	"
Lewis Heyl,	Columbus, Ohio.
V. L. Conrad,	Dayton, Ohio.
C. S. Pennell,	Missouri, St. Louis.
Mrs. H. D. Conrad,	Dayton, Ohio.
Miss A. W. Beecher,	Dayton, Ohio.

III. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1858.

THE SECOND SESSION, OR FIRST ANNIVERSARY OF THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, was held in Cincinnati, Ohio, on the 11th, 12th, and 13th, of August, 1858, with the following officers elected in 1857.

President,

Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, D. C.

Vice-Presidents,

T. W. VALENTINE, of New York.	J. R. CHALLEN, of Indiana.
D. B. HAGAR, of Massachusetts.	E. W. WHELAN, of Missouri.
WILLIAM ROBERTS, of Pennsylvania.	P. F. SMITH, of South Carolina.
J. F. CANN, of Georgia.	D. WILKINS, of Illinois.
J. L. ENOS, of Iowa.	T. GRANGER, of Indiana.
T. C. TAYLOR, of Delaware.	L. ANDREWS, of Ohio.

Secretary,

J. W. BULKLEY, of New York.

Treasurer,

T. M. CANN, of Delaware.

Counselors,

WM. E. SHELDON, E. Abington, Mass.	O. C. WIGHT, Washington, D. C.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Albany, N. Y.	WM. S. BOGART, Savannah, Ga.
P. A. CREGAR, Philadelphia, Penn.	WM. T. LUCKY, Fayette, Mo.
N. R. LYNCH, Middleton, Delaware.	A. J. STEVENS, Des Moines, Iowa.
WM. MORRISON, Baltimore, Md.	WM. H. WELLS, Chicago, Ill.

J. HURLEY, Richmond, Indiana.

The following abstract of the Proceedings, is condensed from the published Journal of the Secretary.*

LECTURES, PAPERS, AND REPORTS.

INTRODUCTORY LECTURE—*The Agency of the Association in Elevating the Character and Advancing the Interests of the Profession of Teaching.* By the President, Z. RICHARDS, Principal of Union Academy, Washington, D. C.

* The Journal of Proceedings of the NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, at the First Anniversary held in Cincinnati, Ohio, August 11th, 1858, with the Constitution and Lectures, 62 pages.

The Lectures of Mr. MANN, and Mr. PHILBRICK, are not included, but will be found in Vol. XIV., of Barnard's "*American Journal of Education.*"

The Educational Tendencies and Progress of the Past Thirty Years. By Prof. DANIEL READ, LL. D., of the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

The Laws of Nature. By Prof. JOHN YOUNG, of the North Western Christian University, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Moral Education. By JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Superintendent of Public Schools, Boston, Massachusetts.

The Teacher's Motives. By HORACE MANN, LL. D., President of Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio.

DISCUSSIONS, RESOLUTIONS, ETC.

Constitution.

The word "biennially" in the fourth Article of the Constitution, was changed so as to read *annually.*

Condition of Education in the several States.

Statements respecting the condition of schools were made by Messrs. SMYTH, of Ohio; DRURY, of Kentucky; KEER, of Pennsylvania; PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts; DIVOLL, of Missouri; BRAGG, of Alabama; MCJILTON, of Maryland.

Parochial Schools.

The relations and influence of Parochial Schools, was discussed by Messrs. KNOWLTON, HOYT, MANN, PHELPS of Indiana, RICHARDS, THOMPSON of Indiana, TUCKERMAN, MAY, STONE of Iowa, and YOUNG. The following resolutions offered by Mr. VALENTINE, were adopted.

Resolved, That in endeavoring to promote the great cause of general education, this Association will not recognize any distinctions on account of locality, position, or particular departments of labor, but that all teachers, whether in colleges, academies, public, private, or parochial schools, in every part of our land, shall be regarded by us as brethren and fellow laborers in one common cause.

Resolved, That while we regard schools established by private enterprise, not only as necessary, in the present condition of things, but as most valuable and indispensable aids in public education, we nevertheless hold that it is the great duty of the State to provide the means for the full and free education of all the youth within its borders.

American Journal of Education.

Mr. PHILBRICK introduced the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the "*American Journal of Education*," edited by HENRY BARNARD, of Connecticut, is regarded by the members of this Association, as a work of great value, and one which deserves the support of all our teachers throughout the country.

Public High Schools, School Registers, Annual Reports, &c.

Committees were appointed to report to the next meeting on "*A Course of Study for Public High Schools*," a uniform plan of "*School Registers*," and "*Annual Reports*," by State and City School officers, and Educational Statistics.

Encouragement.

On motion of Mr. BULKLEY, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That in this first anniversary of the National Teachers' Association, we have an earnest of a glorious future: and that from the spirit manifested by members present, and from letters received from gentlemen who are in sympathy with us in this movement, (but unavoidably absent,) we are encouraged to press on in the work we have initiated, until our object shall be attained.

Excursions were made by members of the Association to College Hill, and other points of interest in and about Cincinnati.

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ZALMON RICHARDS.

ZALMON RICHARDS, the first President of the NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, was born in Cummington, Mass., August 11, 1811. After attending an ordinary District School of the town, until he was fifteen years of age, he enjoyed the instructions, for two terms, of the Rev. Roswell Hawks, in the Academy, which the enterprising citizens of Cummington, had established to meet the demands for a higher education. At the age of seventeen, he commenced his career as a teacher, in a small, but difficult District School in the town of Savoy, where his success was such as to inspire him with a determination to continue his studies through even a college course, and earn the means to meet the expense by teaching a portion of each year. The scanty remuneration paid to teachers in the country towns of Massachusetts, did not allow of much, or rapid accumulation, so young Richards, in addition to his winter's teaching, worked three summers as a mason, to obtain the preparation for entering the Freshman Class of Williams College, in the winter of 1832–3. By teaching every winter in District and Select Schools, and Cummington Academy, he met the expenses of his college residence, and graduated in August, 1836, having maintained a high position in his class, obtaining the prize for elocution during his junior year, and being one of the speakers in the exercises of commencement. During his senior year, he enjoyed the high advantage of the instructions of President Hopkins.

After graduating, Mr. Richards declining other invitations, took the charge of the Academy at Cummington, in which he continued for two years—assisted for a portion of the time, by his wife, he having married Miss Minerva A. Todd, of Chesterfield, Mass., in 1837—a lady of congenial tastes, who was educated in the Female Seminary at Charlestown, Mass., and was, for two years before her marriage, the successful Principal of the Female Academy at Harvard.

In 1838, Mr. Richards became Principal of the Academy at Stillwater, New York, and while there, he conducted the first and second Teachers' Institutes, organized for the county by the County Superintendent. His success in this difficult and delicate work, led to his being employed by Gov. Eaton, Secretary of the Board of Education in Vermont, to take the charge of eleven Institutes, and to his being urgently invited to establish a Normal School in that State.

In December, 1848, he became Principal of the Preparatory Department of Columbian College, in Washington, D. C., in which he continued to labor until 1851, when he established the Union Academy in the same city. Although laboring earnestly and faithfully in his own school, in which he has been greatly assisted by his wife, in the Female Department, he has devoted much time to the Public Schools of Washington, and was chiefly instrumental in organizing the first Teachers' Association in the District, and in establishing and conducting the exercises of the first Institute of the teachers of the Public Schools.

ANDREW J. RICKOFF.

ANDREW J. RICKOFF, the second President of the National Teachers' Association, was born near Trenton, New Jersey, in 1824. When he was seven years old his parents removed to Cincinnati, where he received his education in Woodward College. In 1840, when he was sixteen years old, he commenced teaching in a rural district in Hamilton County near Cincinnati, and after three years successful experience, he was elected Superintendent of the Public Schools of Portsmouth, Ohio. This position he filled for five years, bringing order out of the confusion in which he found the schools, and making the higher school one of the best in the state.

Mr. Rickoff returned to Cincinnati in 1848, to enter as first assistant the Sixth District Public School, of which he became Principal at the close of the first year. He resigned his position in this school in 1851, to engage in other business; but in 1854, he was called back to the educational service, by being elected Superintendent of the Public Schools of Cincinnati. In this broad field of labor he found enough to tax all his energies and time. After making himself familiar with the schools of every grade, and studying the practical working of the system of other large cities, he began at the beginning with the Primary Schools, and commenced there a plan of classification, which he gradually introduced into all the grades above, giving the teachers more time, and the pupils a graduated course of instruction by which their interest in their studies was constantly maintained. Arithmetical solutions on the blackboard, written exercises in the English language, vocal gymnastics, and oral lessons on real objects, took the place of old methods, to the jostling of old ideas and the awaking of much opposition, but to the undeniable improvement of the schools.

One of the most important measures inaugurated by Mr. Rickoff, was the introduction of a new grade of schools, now known as the Grammar or Intermediate, between the District and the High Schools, and composed of pupils from the former, who are not yet prepared to enter the latter. In the schools of this grade he introduced the principle of the division of labor, by confining each teacher to instruction in one, or at most two branches. Into all the schools he introduced frequent written examinations, on the result of which the pupils were classified. To the subject of moral training, he secured additional time from all the teachers, and into several of the schools he introduced regular gymnastic exercises. He abated the alarming evil of the irregularity of attendance. To give uniformity to the methods of all the schools and classes in the same building, the principal was required to spend an hour each day in directing and supervising the labors of his assistants; all the teachers of each section, and of the whole city, were required to meet at least once a month for discussions, and also to make frequent written returns of the condition of their schools.

On the expiration of his four years' term, in the summer of 1858, Mr. Rickoff declined being a candidate for re-election as Superintendent, and established a school of his own, in Cincinnati, in which he could carry out his own views of organization and method, and to which he devotes his best energies.



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1859.

THE THIRD SESSION, OR SECOND ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, was held at Washington, District of Columbia, on the 10th, 11th, and 12th of August, 1859.

President,

ANDREW J. RICKOFF, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Vice-Presidents,

T. W. VALENTINE, of New York.
D. B. HAGAR, of Massachusetts.
B. M. KERR, of Pennsylvania.
J. F. CANN, of Georgia.
J. S. ADAMS, of Vermont.
B. T. HOYT, of Iowa.
C. E. HOVEY, of Illinois.
I. W. ANDREWS, of Ohio.
A. DRURY, of Kentucky.
DANIEL READ, of Wisconsin.
J. N. MCJILTON, of Maryland.
THOMAS C. BRAGG, of Alabama.

Secretary,

J. W. BULKLEY, Brooklyn, New York.

Treasurer,

C. S. PENNELL, Missouri.

Counselors,

JAMES CRUIKSHANK, New York.
W. E. SHELDON, Massachusetts.
S. R. GUMMERE, New Jersey.
J. D. YEATES, Maryland.
S. I. C. SWEZEY, Alabama.
J. B. DODD, Kentucky.
N. D. TIBBELL, Missouri.
C. C. NESTLERODE, Iowa.
L. C. DRAPER, Wisconsin.
ISAAC STONE, Illinois.
E. P. COLE, Indiana.
R. MCMILLAN, Ohio.
O. C. WIGHT, District of Columbia.
H. C. HICKOK, Pennsylvania.
C. PEASE, Vermont.

The following synopsis of the Proceedings is condensed from the Official Journal of the Secretary, published in pamphlet form.*

LECTURES, PAPERS, AND REPORTS.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS—*Review of the Educational System, and the Sphere of the Association in relation thereto.* By the President, A. J. RICKOFF, Cincinnati, Ohio.

The Importance of Civil Polity as a Branch of Popular Education. By Prof. DANIEL READ, of the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

The Place Christianity should occupy in American Education. By ELBRIDGE SMITH, Principal of the Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut.

Errors in the Agencies through which Mankind pass in the pursuit of Knowledge. By J. N. MCJILTON, D. D., Treasurer of Public Schools, Baltimore, Maryland.

Suggestions on Popular Instruction. By H. L. STUART, of New York.

Condition of Education in Mexico. By J. ESCOBA, of Chihuahua, Mexico.

* Journal of the Proceedings of the NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, held in Washington, D. C., August 10th, 11th, and 12th, 1859. Washington, 20 pages.

This document includes none of the Lectures. That of Mr. Smith, on Christianity in American Schools, will be found in the "*American Journal of Education*," Vol. XIV.

REPORTS ON THE STATE OF EDUCATION.

Reports were made by Messrs. SHELDON, of Massachusetts; SMITH, of Connecticut; CRUIKSHANK, of New York; ROBERTS, of Pennsylvania; MCJILTON, of Maryland; TAYLOR, of Delaware; EDWARDS, of Virginia; ELLIOTT, of North Carolina; TURNER, of Florida, for South Carolina; CRUIKSHANK, of New York, for Alabama; TURNER, of Florida; DUNCAN, of Ohio; J. R. SMITH, of Indiana; STARKE, for Missouri; ELMAR and STONE, for Illinois; READ and CRAIG, for Wisconsin; and NESTLERODE, for Iowa; on the following questions:

Have you a State System of Free Public Instruction, and how far does it meet the wants of the people?
Have you Normal Schools? Teachers' Institutes? and a State Association?
To what extent does the graded system of Schools extend in your State?
Have you Public Libraries established by State authority?
What educational progress have you made during the past year?

RESOLUTIONS.

Educational Periodical.

Mr. VALENTINE reported the plan of a Periodical as the organ of the Association, as follows:

1. That its publication commence in this city on the 1st of October next.

2. That the form of said periodical be that of a quarto; that it be issued once a month at the subscription price of 50 cents per annum, in advance.

3. That one column of said paper be devoted to each State in the Union, to be headed with the name of that State, under which shall be properly arranged the items of educational news from that State, with such other articles as the Corresponding Editor of that State may furnish.

4. That one corresponding editor be appointed in each State, whose duty it shall be to furnish all items and general matter from his own State; that such editor be appointed by the Executive officers or Directory of this body, and that said editor be appointed annually.

5. That the immediate publication and control of the journal be committed to the charge of three persons, who shall be residents of the city where the same shall be published.

6. That no compensation shall be allowed to any editor or corresponding editor, except to those who prepare the matter and supervise its publication; and that such compensation be allowed to those as the Board of Directors shall deem proper.

7. That all profits accruing from the publication be paid over at the end of each year to the Treasurer of this Association, and that all deficits of the same, be paid from its funds.

8. That the name of said Journal be "THE NATIONAL TEACHER."

Report and Plan was referred to the Board of Directors.

DEATH OF HORACE MANN.

Whereas intelligence has been received of the death of the Hon. HORACE MANN, late President of Antioch College, and a member of this body: therefore,

Resolved, 1. That by this affliction the cause of education generally, and the world at large, have lost a friend whose distinguished efforts in the cause of human improvement entitle him to the lasting remembrance of every lover of his race.

2. That by his persistent and untiring labors for the advancement of education in this country, his zeal and enthusiasm in the great work of imparting instruction, his readiness to coöperate in enterprises of reform and philanthropy, not less than by his brilliant talents, great learning, and high moral qualities, the name of HORACE MANN, is sacredly embalmed in the memory of all those

who were associated with him, and all who love the great cause in which his life was so devotedly spent.

3. That as members of this Association, we shall ever cherish a lively recollection of the interest which our departed friend took in the welfare and prosperity of this body; and that as the highest respect we can show for his memory, we will endeavor to follow his example and imitate his many virtues.

4. That we tender our warmest sympathies to the family of the deceased, to the students and officers of the institution over which he presided, and to the circle of personal friends upon whom this sudden blow must fall with crushing weight, and trust that the consolations of Heaven will be afforded them in this hour of trial and bereavement.

5. That a copy of these resolutions be made out and duly signed by the President and Secretary, and forwarded to the family of the deceased.

Educational Statistics.

A committee was appointed to confer with the Secretary of the Interior, respecting the Educational Statistics of the next Census, and to memorialize Congress in relation to the establishment of a National Agency, to collect and disseminate the statistics of schools and education in the several States and Territories.

Messrs. READ, of Wisconsin, MCJILTON, of Maryland, and STARKE, of Missouri, appointed.

School Registers and School Records.

The subject was referred to Messrs. PENNELL, STONE, MCJILTON, and RICKOFF.

Christian Religion.

Resolved, That the inculcation of the Christian religion is necessary to the happiness of the people and the perpetuity of our institutions, and we should be pleased to see every teacher in our broad land imbued with its spirit; yet we would not shut the doors of our school-houses upon well qualified and apt teachers because they do not hold membership in any religious denomination.

General Resolutions.

Resolved, 1. That this Association finds much cause for gratification in the fact, that although this is only the second occasion of assembling so many representatives of the educational interests of our country from so many and distant States for the purpose of deliberating upon that inconceivably important subject, the right education of the youth of our land; and in the additional fact, that notwithstanding all the difficulties under which its members have labored, arising from a want of previous acquaintance and correspondence, of formal preparation for the specific business of such a body, and especially from the want of the reports of committees appointed at the last meeting to prepare business for this, that so many valuable suggestions have been made, so great an impulse has been given to the noble enterprise in which we are embarked, and so great a hope inspired that the future meetings of the Association will certainly contribute much to the advancement of sound learning and practical education in our favored land.

2. The thanks of the Association were tendered to Messrs. RICKOFF and BULKLEY, the retiring President and Secretary. To those Roads that have shown their liberality in reducing the traveling expenses of the members, by their generous arrangements. To the citizens of Washington, for their generous hopitalities. To the several reporters of the papers of the city, for the published reports of the proceedings. To the Regents of the Smithsonian Institution for the use of its Hall. To the Hotels that entertained its members at a reduced charge.

Visit to the President of the United States, and Mount Vernon.

The Association paid their respects to the President at the Executive Mansion, (who also attended a session of the Association,) and after the adjournment, made a pilgrimage to the tomb of the "Father of his Country."

... the Conventions and Associations of several States.

* A history of this Association will appear in the "*Am. Journal of Education*," for June, 1864.

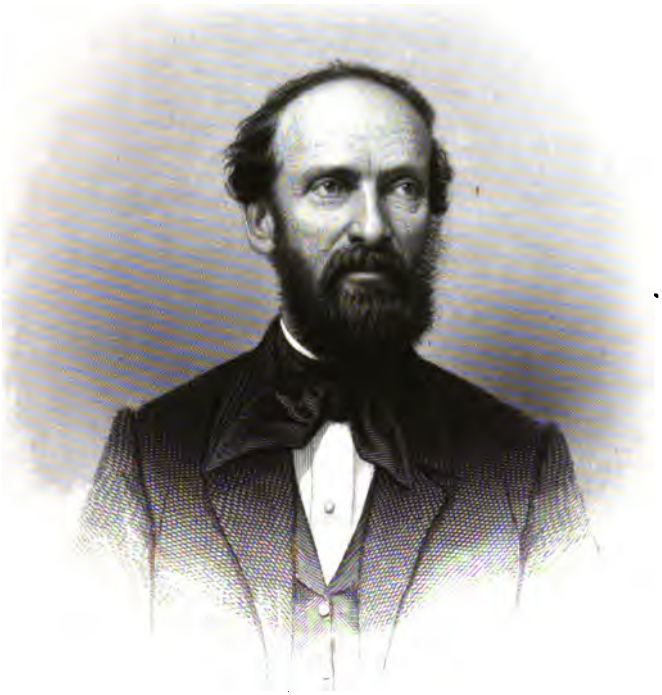


Engd by A.H. Ritchie

J. H. Bulkley

...well as the Conventions and Associations of several States.

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Engd by A.H. Ritchie

J. H. Bulkley

The Educational Tendencies and Progress of the Past Thirty Years. By Prof. DANIEL READ, LL. D., of the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

The Laws of Nature. By Prof. JOHN YOUNG, of the North Western Christian University, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Moral Education. By JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Superintendent of Public Schools, Boston, Massachusetts.

The Teacher's Motives. By HORACE MANN, LL. D., President of Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio.

DISCUSSIONS, RESOLUTIONS, ETC.

Constitution.

The word "biennially" in the fourth Article of the Constitution, was changed so as to read *annually.*

Condition of Education in the several States.

Statements respecting the condition of schools were made by Messrs. SMYTH, of Ohio; DRURY, of Kentucky; KERR, of Pennsylvania; PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts; DIVOLL, of Missouri; BRAGG, of Alabama; MCJILTON, of Maryland.

Parochial Schools.

The relations and influence of Parochial Schools, was discussed by Messrs. KNOWLTON, HOYT, MANN, PHELPS of Indiana, RICHARDS, THOMPSON of Indiana, TUCKERMAN, MAY, STONE of Iowa, and YOUNG. The following resolutions offered by Mr. VALENTINE, were adopted.

Resolved, That in endeavoring to promote the great cause of general education, this Association will not recognize any distinctions on account of locality, position, or particular departments of labor, but that all teachers, whether in colleges, academies, public, private, or parochial schools, in every part of our land, shall be regarded by us as brethren and fellow laborers in one common cause.

Resolved, That while we regard schools established by private enterprise, not only as necessary, in the present condition of things, but as most valuable and indispensable aids in public education, we nevertheless hold that it is the great duty of the State to provide the means for the full and free education of all the youth within its borders.

American Journal of Education.

Mr. PHILBRICK introduced the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the "*American Journal of Education*," edited by HENRY BARNARD, of Connecticut, is regarded by the members of this Association, as a work of great value, and one which deserves the support of all our teachers throughout the country.

Public High Schools, School Registers, Annual Reports, &c.

Committees were appointed to report to the next meeting on "*A Course of Study for Public High Schools*," a uniform plan of "*School Registers*," and "*Annual Reports*," by State and City School officers, and Educational Statistics.

Encouragement.

On motion of Mr. BULKLEY, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That in this first anniversary of the National Teachers' Association, we have an earnest of a glorious future: and that from the spirit manifested by members present, and from letters received from gentlemen who are in sympathy with us in this movement, (but unavoidably absent,) we are encouraged to press on in the work we have initiated, until our object shall be attained.

EXCURSIONS were made by members of the Association to College Hill, and other points of interest in and about Cincinnati.


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RESOLUTIONS AND DISCUSSIONS.

The American Journal of Education.

Professor PHELPS, of New Jersey, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, 1. That we hereby express our high appreciation of Barnard's "*American Journal of Education*," as the most complete and comprehensive educational periodical that is published in the English language.

2. That the teachers of the country owe it alike to their own elevation and improvement, and to the general advancement of education, to give this Journal their most hearty coöperation and support.

3. That we can and will raise a list of one hundred new subscribers to the Journal at our present meeting.

The resolutions were ably discussed, and heartily concurred in by Messrs. PHELPS, of New Jersey; NORTHROP, of Massachusetts; MCJILTON, of Maryland; W. H. WELLS, of Illinois; MCELLIGOTT, of New York; RICHARDS, of Washington City; WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania; SAWYER, of South Carolina; ANSORGE, of Massachusetts; HENCKLE, of Ohio; and PHILBRICK, of Boston. Adopted.

Oral Instruction, and the proper Use of Text-Books.

Mr. ANSORGE, of Massachusetts, opened the subject, and was followed by STOWITZ, GREENLEAF, and WEBSTER, of New York; E. P. STONE, and NORTHROP, of Massachusetts; MARVIN, of Ohio; and MCJILTON, of Maryland.

Adult Education.

Discussion was introduced by Mr. SHELDON, of Massachusetts; who was followed by H. K. OLIVER, of Massachusetts; and THOMPSON, of New York. Closed with the following resolutions.

Resolved, That the education of adults, who, from any cause, have been deprived of its blessings, in their earlier days, is a subject worthy the attention and sympathy of all teachers, and friends of humanity.

Resolved, That we heartily commend the formation of *adult classes*, in connection with evening schools, to the attention and coöperation of School Committees, Boards of Education, and Philanthropists, in all our large towns and cities, where such persons are usually found.

The Heating and Ventilating of School Buildings.

The subject was introduced by Prof. PHELPS, of New Jersey, and further discussed by RICHARDS, of Washington; HENCKLE, of Ohio; and WELLS, of Chicago, closed with appointing Messrs. PHELPS, RICHARDS, HENCKLE, WELLS, and NORTHROP, a committee to report to the next meeting.

Physical Culture.

Introduced by resolutions by Mr. WHITE, of Chicago, and discussed by RICHARDS, GROSVENER, and OLIVER.

Resolved, That this Association recognizes a thorough and judicious system of physical culture, as the only basis for the full and complete development of our mental and moral faculties; and that any system of instruction, which does not actively recognize the importance of physical education, fails in accomplishing the great ends of education.

Resolved, That we urge upon school committees, and others in charge of public instruction, the propriety of introducing into all our schools, by positive enactment, the careful observance on the part of teachers, of a system of school-room gymnastics adapted to the wants of all grades of pupils.

* Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting, &c., held at Buffalo, August 8, 1860. 32 pages. Lectures by Prof. NORTH, Mr. WELLS, Mr. YOUMANS, Mr. KNEELAND, Mr. HOYT, and Mr CHESTER, were not published.

Phonetic Alphabet.

Resolutions of committee discussed by Messrs. RICHARDS, GROSVENER, STOWITS, GRISWOLD, CRUIKSHANK, WELLS, MCJILTON, SHELDON, and PHILBRICK.

Resolved, That this Association entertains a favorable opinion of the efforts now being made, to investigate the merits of an Universal Alphabetic notation, based upon the phonetic elements of language.

Resolved, That we will appoint a Standing Committee annually, whose duty it shall be to investigate all schemes of phonetic representation; correspond with and call to their aid such persons and scholars, as feel an interest in this subject, and make an annual report of the progress of the reform.

The President appointed Messrs. Z. RICHARDS, of Washington; C. S. PENNELL, of St. Louis; and W. E. SHELDON, of West Newton, Massachusetts.

The Educational Benefaction of Paul Farnum.

Prof. PHELPS, of New Jersey, presented a series of resolutions, in memory of the late PAUL FARNUM, of Beverly, New Jersey, which were as follows:

Whereas, It has pleased the Great Dispenser of events to remove from the scene of his earthly labors, that noble hearted citizen and generous patron of education, PAUL FARNUM, Esq., of New Jersey, therefore,

Resolved, 1. That this Association will ever cherish with profound reverence, the memory of one, who, when living, manifested so deep an interest in the highest welfare of the rising generation.

2. That Mr. FARNUM, by his generous donation of fifty thousand dollars to aid the cause of Normal Schools in our country, contributed most powerfully to the elevation of our noble profession; and entitled himself to the lasting gratitude of all who acknowledge the immortal worth of sound culture.

3. That the Secretary of this Association be directed to forward to the family of the deceased, a copy of these resolutions, as an expression of our sympathy with them, in their sad bereavement, and of our high appreciation of the character and services of the lamented dead.

Resolutions on the President's Address.

Mr. STONE, of Illinois, from the Committee on the President's Address, submitted the following resolutions, which were adopted.

Resolved, 1. That we recognize in the principle of association, an element of power and influence; and that in its application to the purposes of educational reform and progress, and as understood by this Association, we confidently anticipate great good to the cause of sound learning throughout the country.

2. That we feel the necessity and great importance of a National System of Statistics; and that we recommend correspondence with the several School departments of the States and principal cities of the Union, with reference to the attainment of this end.

3. That a Bureau of Statistics is most important in carrying forward the work which we have initiated; and that such a department would exert a powerful influence in promoting the cause of popular education throughout the country; giving unity, imparting strength, and harmonizing efforts, in the several departments of learning.

4. That intellectual culture, and the physical development of man, are not of themselves sufficient to prepare us for the mission of life, and the high ends of creation; but that the culture of the heart and the education of the moral and religious elements of our being, are indispensable to our highest happiness, and the greatest good of the race.

5. That the Board of Directors be instructed to memorialize Congress and urge upon that body the necessary action to secure the object aforesaid.

The adjournment was followed by an Excursion of the Members to Niagara Falls, for which arrangements were made by the Local Committee of Buffalo.

Twenty States were represented.

JOHN D. PHILBRICK.

JOHN DUDLEY PHILBRICK, who has had a successful experience as teacher, both as assistant and principal, in public schools of every grade, from the District School to the Normal Seminary; has administered systems of public instruction under City and State organization, and presided over County, State, and National Associations of Teachers, was born in Deerfield, New Hampshire, on the 27th of May, 1818. With only the scanty resources of elementary instruction, afforded to a family in moderate circumstances, by a poor district, in an agricultural town, young Philbrick resolved to work his way to, and through college, and start in life with such advantages as a diligent improvement of a collegiate course could give. Having fitted for college at the Academy in Pembroke, N. H., he entered Dartmouth in 1838, at the age of twenty years, and graduated in 1842—having served his apprenticeship in teaching a district school in his native town, for two winters, while preparing for college, and for three winters in Danvers, Mass., while a member of Dartmouth.

After graduating he was employed as assistant teacher in the Public High School of Roxbury, for two years, and then for one year more, in the English High School of Boston, under that eminent and veteran teacher, Thomas Sherwin. Such was his success as assistant, that at the expiration of the year, he was elected Principal of the Writing Department of the Mayhew School, and in 1847, he was selected to organize the "single headed system" as Principal of the new Quincy Grammar School. In this work he was eminently successful, and his success greatly facilitated the introduction of the same system of organization into all the Grammar Schools of Boston. While in this school, Mr. Philbrick took an active part in the organization, and subsequent proceedings of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, in the American Institute of Instruction, and in the "*Massachusetts Teacher*,"—keeping himself abreast the educational movements and literature of the times. On the nomination of Mr. Barnard, then Principal of the State Normal School, and Superintendent of the Common Schools of Connecticut, Mr. Philbrick, in 1852, was elected Associate Principal. Believing that here was a wider and higher sphere of educational activity and usefulness, he left his assured position, and higher salary in Boston, and entered, with a hearty love of hard work, upon his new duties of teaching teachers, and coöperating with the Superintendent in administering the school system of Connecticut. On Mr. Barnard's resignation, in 1854, he was elected Principal of the State Normal School, and became State Superintendent. After two years of experience in this new field, during which period he achieved several important changes in the system,* Mr. Philbrick was elected Superintendent of the Public Schools of Boston, and entered on the duties of the office in January, 1857. Here he began at the beginning, with the Primary Schools, and advancing year by year, has made his carefully considered, prudent, and persevering labors felt in all the public schools of Boston.

* For a full account of Mr. Philbrick's labors in Connecticut, see "*The Connecticut Common School Journal*," for 1858.



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John D. Philbrick

Superintendent of Common Schools of Connecticut, Jan 8 1857

Engraved for the Connecticut STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

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1863.

THE FIFTH SESSION, OR FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, was held at Chicago, on the 5th, 6th, and 7th of August, with the following officers elected in 1850.

President,

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Boston, Massachusetts.

Vice-Presidents,

WILLIAM ROBERTS, Philadelphia, Pa.	WM. F. PHELPS, Trenton, N. J.
G. F. PHELPS, New Haven, Conn.	C. C. NESTLERODE, Tipton, Iowa.
ISAAC STONE, JR., Kenosha, Wis.	R. MCMILLAN, Salem, Ohio.
C. S. PENNELL, St. Louis, Mo.	JAMES G. ELIOT, Faison's, N. C.
C. H. ALLEN, Madison, Wis.	Z. RICHARDS, Washington, D. C.
J. N. MCJILTON, Baltimore, Md.	CHARLES ANSORGE, Dorchester, Mass.

Secretary,

JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Albany, New York.

Treasurer,

O. C. WIGHT, Washington, D. C.

Counselors,

WM. H. WELLS, Chicago, Ill.	W. E. SHELDON, West Newton, Mass.
C. H. GILDERSLEEVE, Buffalo, N. Y.	W. D. HENKLE, Lebanon, Ohio.
E. J. BRODIE, Philadelphia, Pa.	F. A. SAWYER, Charleston, S. C.
DAVID N. CAMP, New Britain, Conn.	J. ESCOBAR, Chihuahua, Mexico.
RICHARD EDWARDS, St. Louis, Mo.	D. MCN. TURNER, Tallahassee, Fla.
T. C. TAYLOR, Wilmington, Del.	J. C. PELTON, San Francisco, Cal.
S. SCOTT, Alexandria, Va.	D. FRANKLIN WELLS, Iowa City, Ia.
S. H. WILEY, Salisbury, N. C.	E. DANFORTH, Grand Rapids, Mich.
E. P. WESTON, Gorham Me.	J. BASIL, JR., Baltimore, Md.

Tuesday, August 5, 1863.

THE ASSOCIATION met in Bryan Hall, and was called to order at 10 o'clock, A. M., by the President, JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Boston.

The session was opened with prayer by Rev. Mr. Savage, of Chicago.

WILLIAM H. WELLS, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Chicago, welcomed the Association in the following address:—

I rise, in behalf of the Board of Education, and the teachers and the citizens of Chicago, to welcome the members of the National Teachers' Association to our city.

For myself, I may say, and for many of my associates, there is an intensity of interest in this greeting which rises far above the formality of an ordinary welcome. We ourselves, have come to Chicago, from all the different States now represented in this Association.

It is our own kindred and friends, our former associates, with whom we took sweet counsel in other days, that we now welcome to our adopted home.

And first, with hearts full of affection and gratitude, we welcome New England, mother of schools. Yours are the honored names of Russell, and Carter, and Gallaudet, and Woodbridge, and Mann, and Barnard, and Emerson, and Z. P. Grant, and Mary Lyon, and a hundred other lights of the first magnitude in the educational firmament, that will never cease to shine. Yours was the first Normal School in America, and at the present time yours is the most comprehensive and valuable educational periodical in existence. Again we say, all hail

New England. Long will the newer States pay you their homage by frequent visits to your schools, and long will they continue to profit by your teachings and your example.

Welcome, Empire State! proud in your position; commercial metropolis of a continent, and peer of New England, in your system of public instruction. Yours are the worthy names of Albert and John W. Picket, and Emma Willard, and S. S. Randall; and to you, jointly with New England, belongs the honor of that bright name, the name of David P. Page, whose sun went down at noon. Yours was the first State Teachers' Association, and the first State Teachers' Journal; and yours is the Training School at Oswego, to which all eyes are now turned. To you, also, we bow as our instructors and guides.

Welcome, New Jersey. Though small in area you have already written a large page in the educational history of the country.

Welcome, Maryland, with a Baltimore High School that vies with the Free Academy of New York, in its appointments and its fruits, and a McJilton, whose name is a synonym of educational progress.

Welcome, Washington, the home of Richards, the first President of this Association, and one of its present pillars.

Welcome, Keystone State, with your excellent school system, and your excellent school laws, on which the name of Thomas H. Burrowes, is everywhere inscribed. Yours is the first complete and legalized system of Town and City Institutes of Teachers for mutual instruction and improvement, and all the other States will watch with interest the result of this grand experiment.

Welcome, Ohio. Though young in years, it is a full generation since you published a series of octavo volumes embodying the transactions of the Western College of Teachers, a monument of educational progress that gives Ohio a prominent place in the history of American education. All honor, also, to the teachers of the Buckeye State, for your early example of self-sacrifice in sustaining a State Agent at your own expense; and honor to the name of Lorin Andrews, who has been suddenly cut down in the midst of his usefulness, a martyr to the glorious cause of the American Union.

It is with peculiar pleasure that we extend the hand of welcome to Kentucky, and Tennessee, and Missouri. Nobly and valiantly have you struggled to sustain both the Union, and free schools, and the success with which you have triumphed over every obstacle challenges our admiration.

And what shall I say to the States nearer home—to our own little family of the Northwest? I have seen the assembled teachers of Michigan, of Indiana, of Wisconsin, of Iowa, and of Illinois, and numerous representatives from Minnesota, and Kansas, and Nebraska; and, brethren and sisters, there are a few things which I would like to say to you, but we are young yet, you know, and the old folks are around now, and so I must desist. But some other time, when we feel a little less restraint, we will have a free talk on these points over our own tea-pot. I may, at least, extend to you, as I do, from a full heart, an earnest welcome.

Welcome all, thrice welcome, to our city and our homes.

President PHILBRICK replied as follows:—

In the name and on behalf of this Association, I would tender to you, and through you to the Board of Education of Chicago, and to the citizens of Chicago, our sincere and grateful acknowledgments for your cordial welcome. We appreciate your generous and liberal hospitality, we sympathize with you under your present circumstances, and the difficulties with which you are surrounded. For the last few days, when I saw squad after squad, company after company of teachers arrive here from the different parts of the country, I began to feel some apprehension for your city, but I remembered that your city was the miracle of this continent, that whatever she undertook to do she would do it well. I therefore felt that all would be safe in your hands, and in the hands of the citizens of Chicago.

This meeting is an extraordinary one. The spectacle is, in every respect, extraordinary. Such a spectacle has never been seen before on this continent. There have, previously, been large gatherings of the friends of education; but never in the history of our country has there ever met together so large a body of teachers, or of those representing so generally the whole country, or embrac-

ing a larger amount of talent and reputation, or who have done more to give character, and to mould the present educational interests in the United States. There are more than one thousand of you here to-day; it has been set as high as fifteen hundred.

Those of us who come from the East appreciate the particular and special welcome which you give to us. We had heard, by the shores of the Atlantic, that you proposed to leave us out in the cold; and so about five or six hundred of us from the Yankee nation took the cars and the boats to come out and see whether you really meant to do it or not. [Laughter.] And from the temperature of the atmosphere, as well as from the warmth of your hearts, we feel that there is no danger that we shall be left out in the cold. [Applause.] We have come here in large numbers, and from different parts of the country. A few moments ago I was introduced to the representative and Superintendent of Public Schools from Maine, and the very next moment I turned round, and I was introduced to the Superintendent of Public Schools from Kansas, at the foot of the Rocky Mountains. We are here, not only representing elementary, primary, and grammar schools, from your cities and your towns, from your wide prairies, and from among the hills and valleys of Vermont, but from the high schools and colleges. Principals, professors of colleges, presidents of colleges, the whole of the educational interests of America are represented to-day, on this floor. And, sir, if we came here to-day for any merely personal object, we should not feel that we had any claim to your attention whatever. We have come for no such object; we have come here from the different quarters where we dwell, some of us at considerable inconvenience and expense; we have taken the vacation, many of us, which was needed for repose. We have done so, because we believe that education is the foundation and very basis of our improvement, national and individual, without which our armies may be victorious in the field, may crush our enemies under their heels, yet without the spread of education among the people our triumphs would be vain, and the victories would be but barren victories, yielding no fruit.

I will not detain you further except to say that we hope to receive and give information during our present session, and that our conduct and our proceedings may be such that you will have no cause to regret the pains and sacrifices you may make to promote the success of our meeting.

The Constitution was then read by the Secretary.

On motion of Mr. I. STONE, of Kenosha, Wisconsin, Mr. JOHN F. EBERHART, of Chicago, was appointed Assistant Secretary, to enroll the names of delegates and other persons attending the Convention.

Mr. W. E. SHELDON, of West Newton, Massachusetts, moved the appointment of the usual Committee on resolutions and business. Carried.

The Chair appointed W. E. SHELDON, of Mass.; J. L. PICKARD, of Wis.; and RICHARD EDWARDS, of Illinois.

The SECRETARY asked unanimous consent for the correction of a clerical error in the engrossed copy of the Constitution, by inserting the word "Treasurer" in the list of officers. Granted.

A song of welcome was then given by a quartette of gentlemen of Chicago, led by Mr. GEORGE F. ROOT.

Several business announcements were made.

President PHILBRICK then presented his annual address.

Prof. S. S. GREENE, of Rhode Island, made an announcement of a special excursion to the Mississippi River, for Saturday.

Mr. WELLS stated the arrangements made by the local committee for the free entertainment of ladies attending the meeting.

The SECRETARY read a communication from the New York State Teachers' Association, presenting the credentials of the following delegates:

A. B. DOUGLAS, Andes.	S. G. TAYLOR, Brooklyn.
W. N. BARRINGER, Troy.	R. DANFORTH, Troy.

E. D. WELLER, Oswego.
E. A. SHELDON, Oswego.
AARON CHADWICK, Brooklyn.
D. W. FISH, Rochester.
D. HOLBROOK, Rochester.
C. HOLCOMBE, Troy.

Mr. W. D. HENKLE, of Lebanon, Ohio, presented the following names of delegates on behalf of the Ohio State Teachers' Association:

W. D. HENKLE, Lebanon.
Rev. Mr. COOPER, Butler, Co.
WM. CARTER, Delaware.
A. J. RICKOFF, Cincinnati.
LYMAN HARDING, "
E. T. TAPPAN, "
E. E. WHITE, Columbus.
CHARLES S. ROYCE, Norwalk.
J. H. RHODES.
Miss JANE BABBETT.
M. J. OATMAN, Painesville.
L. M. OVIATT, Cleveland.
O. N. HARTSHORN, Mt. Union.
F. MERRICK, Delaware.
M. F. COWDERY, Sandusky.
T. E. SULIOT, Salem.
JOHN HANCOCK, Cincinnati.
M. D. PARKER, "
S. A. BUTTS, "
Miss W. SHERWOOD.

The delegates were, on motion, cordially invited to participate in the deliberations of the Association.

On motion of Rev. Dr. MCJILTON, the communications from the New York and Ohio Associations were referred to a special committee. The chair appointed Rev. J. N. MCJILTON, of Baltimore, A. S. KISSELL, of Iowa, and A. J. RICKOFF, of Ohio.

Mr. WELLS, on behalf of the Young Men's Association of Chicago, extended an invitation to visit their rooms. Adjourned to meet at 2 oclock, P. M.

Afternoon Session.

The Association met at 2 o'clock, President PHILBRICK, in the chair.

The PRESIDENT called for the reports of committees appointed at last session.

Mr. RICHARDS, from the Committee on a universal Alphabetic Notation, reported progress and asked further time. Granted.

The SECRETARY made an oral report on statistics, stating the causes which had prevented the collection of material and the preparation of a full report. He moved the re-adoption of the resolution passed at last meeting relating to that subject. Carried. The resolution is as follows:

Resolved, That a Committee consisting of the Counselor elect from each State represented in this Association, be appointed on General Statistics; and that the Secretary be instructed to prepare, under the direction of the President, suitable blanks covering the field of General Statistics, for the use of the Committee, and to digest such reports when returned, and present at the next Annual Meeting a synopsis thereof, together with such similar statistics as he may be able to collect, from other States not represented.

The report of Mr. PENNELL, on School Statistics, which had been re-committed, was called for, but no response being given, the subject was on motion of Dr. CRUIKSHANK, referred to the foregoing committee.

Mr. T. D. ADAMS, of Newton, Mass., was then introduced, and addressed the Association upon *The Bearings of Popular Education on Civilization.*

At the close of the lecture the Association was favored with a song under the direction of Mr. ROOT.

Mr. W. WOODARD, of Chicago, was, on motion, appointed to superintend the issuing of return tickets to members of the Association.

After a recess of five minutes,

Rev. Dr. MCJILTON, from the Committee on membership, presented a list of names, and the persons reported were elected members of the Association.

Prof. E. A. GRANT, LL. D., of Louisville, Ky., then read a paper on *The Causes of Failure and Success among those who assume the office of Teacher.*

An invitation was received from the First M. E. Church, Chicago, to participate in their Thanksgiving services to-morrow.

The thanks of the Association were returned.

Adjourned till 8 o'clock, P. M.

Evening Session.

The Association met at 8 o'clock.

On motion, Mr. G. D. BROOMELL, was appointed to assist in engrossing the names of persons in attendance.

On motion of Dr. CRUIKSHANK, the President's Address was referred to a select committee of three, to consider the same, and report to the Association.

Rev. Dr. MCJILTON, from the Committee on State Associations, presented the following report:

The Committee appointed to receive the correspondence of the State Teachers' Associations of New York and Ohio, respectfully report; That the feature of correspondence and representation between the National Teachers' Association and the State Teachers' Associations thus introduced, is highly important to the educational interests of the country, not only in the recognition of the national character of the National Teachers' Association, but in uniting the Associations of the states in joint labor, in connection with a central body, to which they may communicate, and from which they may receive information, in relation to such improvements as may, from time to time, be introduced, thereby circulating intelligence and securing progress in the great work of extending the facilities of education throughout the country.

In this fraternization of the labors of the teacher, the educational interests of the several states and of the United States, may be materially advanced, and the teacher greatly encouraged in the pursuit of the same.

The Committee present to the consideration of the Association, the following resolutions.

Resolved, That the Secretary be directed to provide a suitable book for the purpose of recording the correspondence of the National Teachers' Association with such of the State Teachers' Associations as may engage in the same,—the names of the delegates, and their communications to the National Teachers' Association, to be preserved by such record.

Resolved, That the original papers of the several State Associations, be filed in the office of the Secretary.

The report was accepted, and the resolutions adopted.

On motion, the chair appointed Messrs. LITTLEFIELD, of Mass., L. L. CAMP, of Conn., and T. D. WILLIAMS, of Wis., to act as door-keepers and ushers, during the session.

Hon. J. M. GREGORY, Superintendent of Public Instruction of Michigan, was introduced, and delivered a lecture, on *The Philosophy and Methods in Education.*

SECOND DAY, *August* 6,—*Morning Session.*

The Association was called to order by the PRESIDENT at 8½ o'clock, and the session was opened with prayer, by Rev. Dr. J. N. MCJILTON, of Baltimore.

Prof. G. W. HOSS, of Indiana, introduced the following resolution:

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed to consider and report what the times and the condition of the country demand of educators, in the way of teaching the principles of our government; also the rights and duties of the citizen under the same.

Adopted.

Mr. S. W. MASON, of Boston, then read a paper on *School Gymnastics.*

On motion, a committee of three was appointed to act as a medium of communication between teachers and schools.

The chair appointed Messrs. E. F. Strong, of Conn., J. M. B. Sill, of Mich., and S. H. Peabody, of Wisconsin.

Mr. W. E. Sheldon, moved, that a committee of seven be appointed to nominate officers for the ensuing year. Carried.

The committee was named as follows:

W. E. Sheldon, of Mass. — Z. Richards, of D. C.
A. S. Kissell, of Iowa. — E P. Weston, of Maine.
J. L. Pickard, of Wisconsin. — R. Edwards, of Illinois.
J. T. Goodnow, of Kansas.

The chair appointed the following committee on Prof. Hoss' resolution:

G. W. Hoss, Indiana. — J. M. Gregory, Michigan.
J. A. Stearns, Mass. — E. A. Grant, Kentucky.
Daniel Read, Wisconsin.

Mr. Stone, from the committee on membership, reported a list of names. The report was accepted and the persons recommended therein were elected members of the Association.

On motion of Mr. Henkle, all lady teachers present were elected honorary members of the Association, and were requested to report their names to the Secretary.

Prof. Hailman, of Kentucky, offered the following resolution, which was on motion referred to the committee on resolutions:

Resolved, That the Board of Directors are requested to prepare subjects of general educational interest for discussion by the Association, or to so arrange the exercises as to give time for discussion on the topics presented by the lecturers; and that in the discussions, no speaker be allowed to speak longer than five minutes, or more than twice on the same subject without special consent.

Mr. Z. Richards, of Washington, D. C., then read a paper—subject: *The Teacher as an Artist.*

At 11 o'clock, A. M., the Association suspended business to engage in exercises appropriate to the day of Thanksgiving as recommended by the President of the United States.

Thanksgiving Exercises.

The services were opened by the reading of select portions of scripture by Rev. Dr. McJilton, Baltimore. The audience then joined in the Hymn, "Oh bless the Lord, my soul," to the tune of Boylston.

Rev. Dr. Hill, of Harvard College, offered the following prayer:

Almighty, Ever-living God, who, from eternity to eternity unchangeable in thy counsels, hast for us appointed the incessant changes of our brief life on earth: we thank thee that thou hast also given us immortal hopes, and an undying faith through Jesus Christ our Lord. We thank thee that, emboldened through his precious promises, we may with immovable confidence rest upon the Eternal God as our refuge, and feel beneath us the Everlasting Arms.

Leaning thus, O Holy Father, upon thee, and believing that thou orderest all things well, we scarce dare thank thee for one gift above another, knowing that all things work together for the good of them that love thee; or pray thee to defend us from one temptation rather than another, knowing that our perverse hearts, unrestrained by thy grace, may turn the choicest opportunities for virtue into occasions of sin.

But we can not refrain from thanking thee that thou hast encouraged us to love and fear thy name, and from thanking thee that thou hast invited us to pour out our petitions and our thanksgivings to thee, assuring us that thou art ready to receive us with more love and tenderness and fatherly kindness than we feel toward the children whom thou hast given us.

We come, therefore, O God, this day unto thee, bearing upon our hearts the burden of our country's sorrow and our nation's shame. A people blessed above all other people with the gifts of thy providence and with the free knowledge of thy word, we are yet lifting up the sword against each other, and filling our land with widows and orphans, weeping for those slain in the bloody horrors of a civil war.

We know that it is for our sins that we are thus chastened, and we pray for the aid of thy spirit in searching out our own sins, and in learning wherein we, each one, have offended. Let us not, O Holy Father, be content with looking to our neighbors' sins, and with confessing our neighbors' transgressions, whether those sins be, as we think, sins of cruelty and oppression, or sins of rash and intermeddling fanaticism. But may we, and our countrymen who join with us this day in thanksgiving for thy mercies, looking each into our own hearts and lives, see how WE have sinned—by our cold indifference to the rights of the enslaved: by our indolent neglect of our own duties as freemen; by our failure to study the laws which thou hast enacted for the government of the social state; by our cowardly submission to injustice ourselves, and our cowardly sufferance of injustice to others, or by our heated and angry resistance, and at all times by our failure to lean, (with due submission to thy will,) upon thine almighty arm for help; by our failure to recognize our relations to thee and to man as thy children; by our forgetfulness that eternal and infinite issues hang upon all our actions, and that for this weight of responsibility we are ready only through thy grace in Christ our Lord, through whom we can do all things.

O Lord, we confess our sins and the sins of our people, through which these heavy woes have been brought upon us. We confess our sins, and beseech thee to lead us and our nation into the straight way which we have forsaken, through paths of repentance and submission to the Divine will, back to the perfect enjoyment of union and fraternal peace. Let the awful baptism of fire and blood, through which we have passed and are passing, purify us from our sins and bring us again to own thy will as our highest law, and the eternal principles of Right and Justice as no idle, glittering generalities, but as the immutable conditions of life and health for the souls of men and of nations. Let not the glorious hopes which thy past dealings with our nation had awakened be confounded, but may we, through thy chastisement and our repentance, become a nation of righteousness, opening an asylum for all the oppressed, and fulfilling perfectly the plans of social order which thou hadst determined before the foundation of the world. We thank thee that through the victories which thou hast vouchsafed to our army and navy, and through the changes manifested in the temper of our people, thou hast again encouraged these hopes. Perfect, O Father, thy work. Calm the raging passions of those who rebel against order, and law, and government, and bring them to a better mind. Unite the hearts of all loyal people, and illumine their minds with clear perceptions of their duty toward their country and toward their fellow men, and toward thee. Most heartily do we beseech thee with thy favor to behold and bless thy servant the President of the United States, and those associated with him in civil and military authority, to endow them plenteously with heavenly grace, to give them wisdom in counsel adequate to so great a national emergency, and courage and strength and success in action, that may at length restore to all our people their holy rights and privileges, and establish civil and religious liberty, a just government, a pure and holy faith, and public and private virtue among us. God of all grace and consolation, visit also, we beseech thee, with thy tender care and consolation all those who are wounded, or sick, or suffering, or bereaved, by this the chastisement of our nation. Let them through thy grace be led to repent each one of their own private sins, and to find reconciliation and peace with thee through Christ our Lord. But in regard to these sorrows and sufferings brought upon them by the vicissitudes of war, let them have the inward assurance that they are suffering in a holy cause, not for their own but for others' sins, even for ours, and for the sins of the whole people, and that, therefore, their wounds and their pains and their griefs are hallowed bonds of union between them and him who died on Calvary—not for himself, but for us sinners; let them have the inward assurance of a faith clearer than sight, that these afflictions, which are but for a moment, shall work out for them a far more exceeding and eternal weight of glory.

And these thanksgivings and supplications in behalf of ourselves and of those whom thou hast made dear to us, in behalf of our country and our people, in behalf of our rulers and our loyal men, and in behalf of those who assail our government and laws, we offer in the worthy name of Christ our Lord, beseeching thee to accept and answer us not according to our words or to our worth, but according to that infinite wisdom and unsearchable love which thou hast manifested unto all men in him. AMEN.

Rev. Dr. EDDY, of Chicago, was then introduced, and spoke on the past and present condition of the country, and the occasion of National Thanksgiving.

After additional remarks by Rev. Mr. BROOKS, and Hon. J. M. GREGORY, the audience joined in singing the hymn, "Soon shall the last glad song arise," to the tune of Old Hundred.

Dr. MCJILTON pronounced the benediction.

[The afternoon was occupied by the session of the American Normal School Association.]

Evening Session.

The President called the attention of the members of the Convention to the importance of enrolling their names, and of paying the annual dues.

Messrs. J. B. PRADT, of Wisconsin, A. P. STONE, of Massachusetts, and A. J. RICKOFF, of Ohio, were appointed a committee on the President's Address.

Prof. ROOT favored the Association with a song—*The Land beyond the River.*

Rev. Dr. THOMAS HILL delivered a lecture on *The Powers to be Educated.*

Prof. GREENE, moved that a committee of five, be appointed by the Chair to prepare suitable resolutions to be offered at the close of this meeting. Carried.

THIRD DAY, *August 7,—Morning Session.*

The Association met at 8½ o'clock. Prayer by Rev. Mr. BOREING, of Chicago.

The Minutes were read and approved.

The Chair appointed the following committee on resolutions: S. S. GREENE, J. W. BULKLEY, W. E. SHELDON, J. L. PICKARD, and RICHARD EDWARDS.

Mr. J. TUCKERMAN, of Ohio, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to report at the next Annual Meeting of this Association upon the comparative merits of what is termed theoretical or general, and practical or specific instruction. Adopted.

Mr. E. A. SHELDON, of Oswego, then read a paper upon *Object Teaching.*

Mr. WILLIAM E. CROSBY, of Cincinnati, read a paper upon *The Organization of Primary Schools.*

Mr. W. E. SHELDON, from the committee to nominate officers for the ensuing year, reported.

The report was accepted, and the time of election was fixed at the opening of the afternoon session.

The Chair appointed the following committee on Mr. TUCKERMAN'S resolution, viz.: J. TUCKERMAN, of Ohio, J. M. B. SILL, of Michigan, and C. H. ALLEN, of Wisconsin.

Rev. Dr. MCJILTON, from the Committee on Membership, presented a list of names. The persons recommended, were elected members of the Association.

Hon. HENRY BARNARD, LL. D., of Hartford, Conn., delivered an address on *Competitive Examination for Admission to the Military Academy at West Point.*

On motion of Rev. Dr. MCJILTON, Dr. BARNARD, was requested to reduce the substance of his discourse to the form of resolutions, that they may be brought up for discussion, or appear upon the records.

Mr. STONE, of Wisconsin, moved that a committee of three be appointed to consider and report upon the subject of Certificates of Membership.

The motion was adopted, and the Chair appointed Messrs. STONE, CRUIKSHANK, and T. D. ADAMS, such committee.

Mr. CHARLES ANSORGE, of Mass., offered the following resolutions.

Whereas, The power of music over the human soul has been proved beyond question, both by reason and experience; and, whereas, singing is the simplest as well as the most popular and effective kind of music; therefore,

Resolved, 1. That singing should be taught, to some extent, in every public school.

Resolved, 2. That public teachers, to whom in most cases, this branch of instruction will be intrusted, should cultivate their musical faculties as much as circumstances will admit.

Resolved, 3. That the publication of a suitable collection for teachers, containing songs of a professional, social, patriotic, and religious character, would supply an acknowledged want, and be likely to meet favor.

The resolutions were discussed by Messrs. ANSORGE, EDWARDS, MCJILTON, and Prof. ROOT; and adopted.

An invitation was received from the Board of Trade of Chicago, inviting the Association to visit their rooms. Accepted with thanks.

A communication was read from BARTON A. ULRICH, offering an essay for publication and distribution, which was referred to the committee on resolutions.

Mr. RICHARDS, from the Committee on a Universal Alphabetic Notation, reported informally.

On motion, the subject was re-committed, and J. H. PARTRIDGE, of New York, was added to the committee, in place of C. S. PENNELL.

Adjourned.

Afternoon Session.

On re-assembling, the Association proceeded to the election of officers.

The Chair appointed Mr. ALLEN, of Wisconsin, and Mr. NESTLERODE, of Ohio, to act as tellers.

The tellers reported as the result of the canvass, that the ticket nominated for the various officers, with W. H. WELLS, of Chicago, for President, was duly elected.

Mr. SHELDON, from the Committee on Business and Resolutions, reported Mr. HAILMAN'S resolution to the Association, and moved its reference to the incoming Board of Directors. Carried.

Mr. SHELDON further reported in regard to the essay of Mr. ULRICH, that it is not the custom of this Association to publish papers not regularly brought before it. He moved its reference to the President for transmission to the author. The paper was so referred.

Mr. G. W. HOSS, from the Special Committee on Teaching the Principles of Government, reported as follows:

Whereas, in a Democratic Government, wherein the people are, of necessity, the sovereigns, it is indispensable to the prosperity and perpetuity of such government that these sovereigns, the people, understand the principles of said government, and

Whereas, The exigences of the times, demand the *highest* intelligence and the *purest* patriotism, therefore,

Resolved, 1. That it is imperative, that the History, Polity and Constitution of our Government be taught in all our schools, wherein the maturity of the pupils is equal to the subjects.

Resolved, 2. That this Association earnestly commends this subject to the attention of teachers, trustees, and committee-men, throughout the nation.

Resolved, 3. That this teaching should never be prostituted to the inculcation of merely partizan sentiments and principles.

The resolutions by Mr. Hoss, were supported by Prof. GRANT, of Kentucky, Mr. WELLS, of Chicago, and Mr. RICHARDS, of Washington, and Hon. JOHN WENTWORTH.

The report and resolutions were unanimously adopted. The audience united in singing "*America*."

Mr. ALLEN, of Massachusetts, offered the following resolution which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That while we deprecate the discussion of merely party or sectional topics, by Teachers' Associations, we yet deem no person worthy to hold the honorable position of teacher or officer in any educational institution who is not fearlessly outspoken and true, at all times, both by voice and vote, to the great questions of loyalty, patriotism, and the unconditional support of the National Government, in this crisis of our country's fate.

Hon. J. L. PICKARD, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Michigan, then delivered an address upon *The Union of Labor and Thought.*

Mr. BULKLEY, of New York, offered resolutions, that had been adopted at the Annual Meeting of the New York State Teachers' Association, which, on motion of Mr. WESTON, of Maine, were laid upon the table, and the following resolution was adopted.

Resolved, That the loyalty of this Convention needs no re-assertion—that we are with our country and for our country, now, and forever, one, and inseparable.

Dr. CRUIKSHANK, offered the following resolutions, which were adopted.

Resolved, That the Board of Directors be requested to publish, in pamphlet form, the proceedings of the present session of the Association, including the lectures, reports, and names of members and persons in attendance, together with the names of all former members of the Association.

Resolved, That to meet the expense of publication, contributions of money be solicited to be paid to the Treasurer—the published copies to be distributed to the persons so contributing in proportion to their donations.

Mr. WELLS read the following letter from GEORGE B. EMERSON, LL. D.

To W. H. WELLS, Superintendent.

MY DEAR SIR,—It is with extreme reluctance that I forego the pleasure of meeting the members of the National Association of Teachers at Chicago. But absolute engagements make it imperative on me to remain at home.

I longed to greet the earnest spirits who, I know, will come to your meeting. Many of them are, like yourself, old and tried friends, men devoted, heart and soul, to the great and holy cause of education. I wanted to take them by the hand again, to listen to their words of wisdom, and catch from them anew their spirit of devotion and self consecration to the sacred cause of human elevation, and to rejoice with them at the wonderful, and most encouraging progress the good work is making in every part of the Free States. I thank God that I have lived to see the day when great numbers of good, strong, thoughtful, resolute men, of the highest education and the noblest purposes, are willing to travel thousands of miles to strengthen and encourage each other, and devise better measures, in a still higher spirit, for their future labors. Would that I were with you. But I can not come; my duty forbids, and I have learned that the only way for me is to do the work which God has placed before me, no matter what it is, as well as I can. I heartily congratulate the friends of education at the change which is taking place in the instruction of the youngest children; that the importance is beginning to be recognized of training, at an early age, the observant and the reasoning faculties, by the study of natural objects—the ob-

jects which are manifestly created for this very purpose. I would earnestly and respectfully ask, whether this path, thus pointed out and begun, ought not to be pursued. Whether the faculties, thus awakened, are not to be regularly and methodically exercised and matured, by similar studies and investigations; whether those studies are not, as speedily as possible, to be introduced into all the Common Schools; whereby such questions as these may be answered: What is the air we breathe? What is its composition, what are its uses to man, to other animals, to vegetation, to the earth? What is water? What its composition; what its uses in the world? What is the soil? What its elements; its best management for the good of the husbandmen? What are the nature and structure of the body of man and the other animals he has to do with?

Every man is, of necessity, more or less a mechanic. Ought not the knowledge of the mechanical powers, and their important applications and principles to be made known, as early as possible, to every child?

Again, I would ask, respectfully, but still more earnestly, whether the moral and spiritual instruction given in our Common Schools is, everywhere, such as becomes a Christian people?—It is admitted that the faculties ought to be developed and disciplined, and that work is beginning to be done by exercises expressly adapted to the purpose.

Ought not, above all others, the conscience, that faculty by which we are led to judge of right and wrong,—the light which God has given to lighten every one,—to be early exercised and thus educated? Ought not this to be done, expressly, in every school? Are there not, in every school, some children whose conscience is never educated at home, and who, if it be not educated in school, will never, during childhood, have it educated at all? Ought not every child to be taught the sacredness of duty? Ought not every one to be taught reverence for truth, his own immortality and responsibility, and the fear and the love of God? And, inasmuch as we know that there are thousands of homes in which these truths and duties are not taught, ought they not to be taught, carefully, in every school in a Christian land?

I respect the great wisdom of that provision of the Laws of Massachusetts; and wish it were in the laws of every State, that no book shall be introduced into any public school, "calculated to favor the truth of any particular sect of Christians." The letter and the spirit of this law should everywhere be obeyed. Sectarianism must not be introduced; otherwise a school is not a *free* school. But I know, from a life's experience, that the great truths of religion and the principles of morality admitted and held by all Christians, are sufficient, and may be taught without giving offense to any one. Ought they not always to be taught? Is there any better way of using the Bible in school, so as at once to increase a reverence for the Scriptures and to give the highest authority to the moral and religious instructions of the teacher, than for him to read it daily, with careful selection, as a part of the devotional exercise, and to point out the lessons contained in the passage read?

In this way he can teach and enforce every one of the most important duties, not on his own poor authority, but on the divine authority of the Saviour, or of one of his apostles.

I wish I could be with you to urge the consideration of these suggestions. If you consider them of any value, if there be time, and if they have not been already presented in a better form, I should be glad to have you bring them forward. You will make such use of them as you may think best.

I remain, my dear sir, very sincerely your friend,

GEORGE B. EMERSON.

BOSTON, August 3d, 1863.

Letters were also received from the following gentlemen:—Mr. J. TENNEY, of New Hampshire; Mr. G. F. THAYER, Mr. WM. RUSSELL, Mr. D. B. HAGAR, Prof. A. CROSBY, and Mr. A. PARISH, of Massachusetts; Mr. CHARLES NORTHEND, of Connecticut; Prof. W. F. PHELPS, of New Jersey; Mr. S. P. BATES, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Pennsylvania; H. B. WILBUR, M. D., Syracuse, New York; Mr. E. E. WHITE, Ohio; Mr. IRA DIVOLL, and Mr. C. S. PENNELL, of Missouri; and Hon. N. BATEMAN, of Illinois.

Adjourned.

Evening Session.

The Association met at 8 o'clock.

Mr. PRADT, of Wisconsin, from the Committee on the President's Address, reported as follows:

Resolved, That this Association heartily indorse the suggestions of the President,—

1. That the situation of the teacher must be made desirable, by adequate compensation, by good treatment, by suitable accommodations, and by limiting his labors to the requirements of health and self-improvement.

2. That the mode of selecting and appointing teachers should be such as to encourage the competition of the best qualified candidates, and to give merit preference over every other consideration.

3. That proper means should be used to *secure* continued self-improvement on the part of teachers, including, especially, commendation and promotion for advancement, and degradation or removal for delinquency.

The Committee also recommended that the topics suggested by the President be assigned to gentlemen named by them, to consider and report to the next meeting. The report was accepted, and the recommendations were adopted.

On motion of Mr. SHELDON, of Massachusetts, the addresses of the evening were confined to five minutes each.

The States were called, and the following gentlemen responded in brief addresses touching the condition of education in their several localities.

District of Columbia—Z. RICHARDS, of Washington; Missouri—Mr. CHILDS, of St. Louis; New Hampshire—A. J. BURBANK, of Keene; Iowa—A. S. KISSELL, of Davenport; Maine—Hon. E. P. WESTON, State Superintendent; Kansas—J. P. GOODNOW, of Topeka; Rhode Island—Prof. S. S. GREENE, of Providence; New York—J. W. BULKLEY, of Brooklyn; Illinois—Hon. J. P. BROOKS, State Superintendent; Kentucky—Prof. HAILMAN, of Louisville; Michigan—J. M. B. SILL, of Detroit; Ohio—A. J. RICKOFF, of Cincinnati.

Prof. ROOT led in a song—*The Battle Cry of Freedom.*

The call of the States was continued, as follows:

Minnesota—Dr. FORD; Senator TRUMBULL, of Illinois, was called for, and made a brief and pertinent speech; Indiana—E. I. RICE; Wisconsin—Hon. J. L. PICKARD, State Superintendent; Major W. S. POPE, of the Army of the Miss., reported on educational matters in Tennessee, Louisiana, and Mississippi; Vermont—Mr. CAMP, of Burlington; a communication was also read from a Vermont lady; Hon. D. N. CAMP, State Superintendent, answered for Connecticut; Massachusetts—J. A. STEARNS, Principal of Lawrence Grammar School, Boston.

The President, Mr. PHILBRICK, after a brief address, introduced Mr. WELLS, the President elect, who spoke as follows:

I will not at this late hour detain the Association with any extended remarks. I am deeply sensible of the honor conferred upon me, and of the responsibility which I assume in attempting to occupy the chair which has been so worthily filled by a Richards, a Rickoff, a Bulkley, and a Philbrick.

The attendance upon our meeting this year has greatly exceeded our expectation. If we are to secure as large an attendance the next year, it will be by earnest labor on the part of the active members of the Association. Will you pardon me, then, if I solicit thus early the special efforts of the delegates from the different States, in your respective spheres of influence, both by correspondence and through the public press? If the delegates now present will consider themselves a special committee of invitation, and will put forth their best efforts during the two or three months immediately preceding the next meeting, to secure a full attendance, we shall see an assemblage of teachers sufficient to fill the largest hall in the land.

The hour of parting has arrived. Let us return to our homes deeply impressed with the lesson that the teacher has no higher duty than to train up patriots, those who love their country, who are loyal to its constitution and government, and who are ready to lay down their lives, if need be, for its defense against the assaults of rebellion and secession, which are only other names for treason.

Prof. GREENE from the committee on resolutions presented the following, which were adopted.

Whereas, The members of the National Teachers' Association, before taking leave of each other, and of the city to whose hospitality they are indebted, for the pleasure and profit of this, their Fifth Annual Session, desire to make public and grateful mention of the several parties to whose considerate kindness and unremitting efforts they are so deeply indebted for the success of this, the crowning meeting of the Association, therefore,

Resolved, That the most cordial thanks of this Association are hereby tendered

1. To the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, and especially to W. H. Wells, Esq., Superintendent of Public Schools, for the generous welcome extended to us at the opening of the session, and continued throughout its entire course.

2. To the citizens of Chicago, for that noble generosity which has freely welcomed to their firesides and homes the ladies in attendance.

3. To the committee of reception, Messrs. Briggs, White, and Haywood, for their incessant and untiring efforts to provide such abundant means for the entertainment, convenience, and happiness of the members.

4. To the Young Men's Association, and to the Board of Trade, for kindly opening to us their rooms during our stay in the city.

5. To the proprietors of the Briggs House, the Adams House, the Tremont House, the Matteson House, and Massasoit House, for a generous reduction of fare to the members.

6. To the several lecturers for the very able and invaluable discussions which have given so elevated a character to this meeting of the Association.

7. To Mr. W. Woodard, committee on return tickets, to Mr. J. F. Eberhart, and Mr. G. D. Broomell, committee on the registry of names, and to I. Stone, treasurer and chairman of the Finance committee, for the faithful discharge of their very onerous duties.

8. To the Daily Journals for their faithful and full reports of our proceedings.

9. To Prof. Root, and his associates, for the pleasure and relief which their songs have given us.

10. To the officers of the various railway and steamboat lines, for their generous reduction of fares, which has enabled many teachers, who otherwise would have remained at home, to enjoy the pleasure and profit of these meetings.

11. To the retiring President and Secretary, for the faithful and impartial management of the business of the year now brought to a close.

12. Finally, that such considerate kindness, so variously and liberally bestowed, be-tokens an increasing appreciation of our noble vocation, and calls upon us to pledge anew to each other, and to the several communities where we labor, a corresponding increase of zeal and effort to elevate the standard of attainment in our profession.

The Association then adjourned.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we, whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION.

Name.

1. This Association shall be styled the "*National Teachers' Association.*"

Members.

2. Any gentleman who is regularly occupied in teaching in a public or private elementary school, common school, high school, academy, or scientific school, college, or university, or who is regularly employed as a private tutor, as the editor of an educational journal, or as a superintendent of schools, shall be eligible to membership.

Applications for admission to membership shall be made, or referred to the Board of Directors, or such committee of their own number as they shall appoint; and all who may be recommended by them, and accepted by a majority vote of the members present, shall be entitled to the privileges of the Association, upon paying two dollars, and signing this constitution.

Upon the recommendation of the Board of Directors, gentlemen may be elected as honorary members by a two-thirds vote of the members present, and as such shall have all the rights of regular members except those of voting and holding office.

Ladies engaged in teaching, may, on the recommendation of the Board of Directors, become honorary members, and shall thereby possess the right of presenting, in the form of written essays, (to be read by the Secretary or any other member whom they may select,) their views upon the subject assigned for discussion.

Whenever a member of this Association shall abandon the profession of teaching, or the business of editing an educational journal, or of superintending schools, he shall cease to be a member.

If one member shall be charged by another with immoral or dishonorable conduct, the charge shall be referred to the Board of Directors, or such a committee as they shall appoint, and if the charge shall be sustained by them, and afterward by two-thirds of the members present at a regular meeting of the Association, the person so charged shall forfeit his membership.

There shall be an annual fee of one dollar. If any one shall omit paying his fee for four years, his connection with the Association shall cease.

A person eligible to membership, may become a life member by paying, at once, ten dollars.

Officers.

3. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and one Counselor for each State, District, or Territory, represented in the Association. These officers, all of whom shall be elected by ballot, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice, shall constitute the Board of Directors, and shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association, and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform such other duties, and enjoy such privileges as by custom devolve upon and are enjoyed by a presiding officer. In his absence, the first Vice-President in order who is present, shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

The Secretary shall keep a full and just record of the proceedings of the Association and of the Board of Directors; shall notify each member of the Association or Board; shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign; and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. In his absence a Secretary *pro tempore* may be appointed.

The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall expend the same in accordance with the votes of the Directors or of the Association; and shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which account he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association; he shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. The Treasurer shall give bonds for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

The Counselors shall have equal power with the other Directors in performing the duties belonging to the Board.

The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and shall do all in their power to render it a useful and honorable institution.

Meetings.

4. A meeting shall be held in August, 1858, after which the regular meetings shall be held biennially.* The place and the precise time of meeting shall be determined by the Board of Directors. (* Altered in 1859, to annually.)

The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place, and two hours before the time of the assembling of the Association, and immediately after the adjournment of the same. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

By-Laws.

5. By-Laws, not inconsistent with this Constitution, may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

Amendments.

6. This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting, by the unanimous vote of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, providing that the alteration or amendment have been substantially proposed at a previous regular meeting.

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WILLIAM H. WELLS.

WILLIAM HARVEY WELLS, the fifth President of the NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, was born in Tolland, Conn., on the 27th of February, 1812. After profiting, as only a few farmers' boys do, by his attendance in the common school of his district, for a few months each winter, he had the good fortune to enjoy the instructions of Theodore L. Wright, in the Academy in Vernon, for two terms, and on the suggestions of this discerning teacher, he commenced and nearly completed the preparatory course for entering college—paying his way, as so many eminent scholars have done before him, by teaching district schools in the winter at ten dollars a month, and "boarding round." But his eye-sight failed him, and he was obliged to abandon his favorite project. He, however, continued to teach—part of the time assisting Mr. Wright, who, appreciating his aptness to teach, and anticipating a successful career for him, if that aptness was cultivated, advised him to join the Teachers' Seminary at Andover, then under the principalship of Rev. S. R. Hall. Here again he had the good fortune to find an appreciating friend in this eminent educator, who invited him to assist him in the Seminary, and take charge of its model department, or practicing classes. Under this truly normal training—himself a hard student all the time in the studies, which he was there, as well as afterward to teach, and also a teacher of others who were learning to be teachers, with examples of the best teaching in the schools of Andover, and the conversations of accomplished educators—Mr. Wells grew up a well equipped scholar and teacher—such as he has shown himself to be in every position he has been called upon to fill.*

In the summer of 1847, Mr. Wells was elected Principal of the "Putnam Free School," in Newburyport, spending the year before entering on his duties in assisting Mr. Barnard, then State Commissioner of Public Schools in Rhode Island, in conducting Teachers' Institutes in that State, as well as in rendering the same kind of normal service in New Hampshire and Massachusetts. After six years of successful experience as Principal of the Putnam Free School—organizing and establishing that great English school on a firm basis, and two years as successful, of the Westfield State Normal School—taking an active part in the meetings of County Teachers' Associations, as well as in the American Institute of Instruction, and the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association—Mr. Wells, in June, 1856, became Superintendent of Public Schools in Chicago, Ill. In this new field of labor, his large and varied experience as a teacher, his wide and careful observation in every grade of school, his constant and thorough study of educational literature, and his indefatigable industry, have secured for him the highest reputation as an administrative officer and an enlightened educator. His "English Grammar" enjoys a wide circulation as a text-book, and his "Graded School" has taken its place in the educational literature of the country.

* For an extended memoir—see "*Barnard's American Journal of Education*," Vol. VIII.

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THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION:

ITS NATURE AND OBJECTS.

BY JOHN D. PHILBRICK,

Superintendent of Public Instruction in Boston, Mass.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—The position in which I find myself placed by the choice of the association—a position unsought, undesired, and undeserved—bestowed no doubt, as a compliment to the section of the country, and particularly to the state in which I live and labor, and to be relinquished gladly at the close of this session,—imposes upon me the duty of inaugurating these proceedings by an introductory address.

And perhaps I may be expected to attempt, by an elaborate performance, either in the exhaustive treatment of some single topic, or in the presentation of a comprehensive summary of our proper aims and purpose, to strike the key-note of the occasion, and thus in a manner to give direction and tone to the discussions which may follow. But this is not what I propose. Indeed, since this meeting was determined upon, at a late day, it has not been in my power to make adequate preparation for such a task. But what, under other circumstances, and in quieter and happier times might have been expected, and might have been attempted, is scarcely required now. It is not from my lips, it could not be from any human lips, that that strain of eloquence, of learning, or of wisdom, is to flow, most competent to shape and inspire the debates and deliberations of this body of American educators, at this time and in this place.

The great and unparalleled conjuncture of our public affairs, the unprecedented perils in which our national existence has been, and is now involved, the sharp and tragic realities of our mighty struggle, demanding the work of all hands, the thoughts of all heads, and the devotion of all hearts, the sacrifice of so much of the best blood of the nation, the necessity to provide for the security of peace, whan peace shall come; these things are what must and will fire our hearts, and bias our thoughts, and direct our aims, and

* Introductory Address before the National Teachers' Association in Chicago, August 4th, 1863; by the President, John D. Philbrick.

influence our speech and action. Till peace and union, and the settled state of order are restored, loyal hearts can not but everywhere, and at all times, vibrate in unison with the key-note uttered by the mouths of the cannon which spoke on the memorable 12th of April, 1861, from the casemates of Sumter, in defence of free government, of christian civilization, of the rights of man. That utterance meant duty,—duty to God, duty to our country,—duty to one another. And our topics, treatment, thoughts, views, must be moulded and tinged by the circumstances and exigences of this perilous crisis, this mighty conflict, and as patriotic educators, we must necessarily keep uppermost in our minds, at such a time as this, the relations of education to the national life, to political morality, and the stability of free institutions of government.

It seems proper, however that I should present, briefly, some facts and suggestions respecting the nature and objects of our association, and the sphere of its operations and influence.

It is now six years since this association was organized. It originated in a call signed and issued by the Presidents of ten State Associations, inviting teachers throughout the United States to assemble in Philadelphia on the 26th of August, 1857, for the purpose of organizing a National Teachers' Association. It being the express design of the movement to institute a society which should be strictly professional in its character, the invitation was not extended to the friends of education generally, but was limited to persons actually engaged in the business of education. The language employed is this; "We cordially extend this invitation to all *practical teachers* in the North, the South, the East, and the West, who are willing to unite in a general effort to promote the educational welfare of our country, by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds, and by distributing among all the accumulated experiences of all who are ready to devote their energies, and to contribute of their means to advance the dignity, respectability and usefulness of their calling; and who, in fine, believe that the time has come when the teachers of the nation should gather into one great educational brotherhood."

In pursuance of this call a meeting was held at the designated time and place. It was well attended, and was composed of gentlemen from the different sections of the country, many of whom had won a title to confidence by their eminent services in the cause of education. These gentlemen proceeded to organize the association by the adoption of a constitution and the election of officers. On each of the three succeeding years, a large and successful annual

meeting was held—in 1858, in Cincinnati, fifteen states being represented; in 1859, in Washington, representatives from seventeen states being present; and in 1860, in Buffalo, with a representation from nineteen different states, and from the Federal District. The proceedings have been published each year in pamphlet form, including a part of the lectures and papers, which have been characterized by a good degree of ability, learning, and sound practical wisdom. Thus, in brief, stands our record up to 1860.

No annual meeting was held in 1861 or in 1862, the all absorbing exigences of the war, and the impossibility of securing a representation from the seceded states seeming to justify and render necessary a temporary suspension of our operations as a society.

But the period of inaction has passed, and we have reason to congratulate ourselves that it has not resulted in decay and dissolution. As individuals, and as an Association, we still live, and after the lapse of three years we meet again in largely increased numbers, and with renewed strength, here in this great Metropolis of the Northwest, the most marvelous creation and monument of American enterprise, as well as the most striking illustration of the rapid growth and expansion of American civilization.

And it would be an unpardonable neglect of a manifest duty, if we should not feel and acknowledge, with profound gratitude, the favor of Heaven in thus permitting us to assemble here and now, in such force, undisturbed, and in protecting to such an extent the interests of education which we represent, notwithstanding the calamities which have befallen the nation.

The distinctive peculiarity of our organizatian is found in the fact that it is both *national* and *professional*. It is the only educational body of a truly national character now existing in America. Our educational associations for the past thirty years have been for the most part limited to a state or section of the country; and though their usefulness is beyond question, their tendency is no doubt to strengthen local prejudices, and to perpetuate local ideas and systems. The American Institute of Instruction, though a highly useful and honorable society, whose influence has been, and is now widely felt, is mainly supported from the School Fund of Massachusetts, and during the thirty-three years of its existence, it has held but one meeting beyond the limits of the New England States—most of its working members having their residence in a few of the Atlantic States, and therefore it can not justly claim to be what its name implies, and what it was intended to be—truly national in its scope and operations.

But the national character of this body is evident in its design and origin, in the place of its meetings, in the generality of its representation, and indeed in its whole history. In fact the proof is before me. I see within these walls delegates from nearly every loyal state, not only in the Valley of the Mississippi, but beyond the Alleghanies, and on the Atlantic shore, gathered here at a point nearly a thousand miles from the place of the first meeting.

The constitution provides that membership shall be restricted to those who are actually engaged in education as a business, either as teacher, superintendent, or editor, thus securing to it a strictly professional character. This provision, it is believed, will tend to insure both its efficiency and its perpetuity. The American Association for the Advancement of Education, which was instituted at Philadelphia in 1849, and which flourished six or seven years, exerting an extended and beneficial influence, was indeed national in its character, but it was composed of *friends* of education as well as teachers, and not of persons wholly devoted to the business of education. And hence it lacked the essential elements of vitality, and is now known only as a thing in the past. It was destitute of that principle of life which is found in that strong cohesion, that enduring cement, that bond of union, that close affection, which holds together those of the same guild and craft and profession, with ties which, though light as air, are strong as links of steel.

Its design and scope are no less comprehensive than the plan of its organization. These as set forth in the preamble to the constitution, are "to elevate the character and to advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." Thus while designed to admit to membership and participation in its proceedings, the representatives of all grades and descriptions of educational institutions, whether public or private, from the humblest infant school to the highest university, the sphere of its operations is co-extensive with our country's territory and its educational interests, aspiring to embrace the whole subject of instruction and training for the rising generation in all quarters of the Union. With a title so comprehensive, and with objects so vast and important, we have ventured to present ourselves before the community and the world. It becomes us therefore, to consider well the responsibility of the position we have assumed. We ought to endeavor to raise our minds to the height of the great argument. We ought to take large views. We ought to be catholic in spirit, knowing no sects in religion, no parties in politics. We should come to this work and to

these deliberations, bringing with us no local prejudices, no state jealousies, no sectional bigotry. We should come with ideas and sentiments circumscribed within no geographical limits, hemmed in by no mountain ranges or river courses, by lines of latitude or longitude, but with a broad comprehension of intellect and feeling, with minds and hearts large enough to embrace all the interests we profess to serve—remembering ever that we have "one hope, one lot, one life, one glory."

The first great object to which our efforts are pledged, is to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching.

Many fine things have been said concerning the mission of teachers, but after all that has been said, in all ages, upon the subject, more than justice has not been, and never can be done to the theme. We may say with Channing, that there is no office higher than that of a teacher of youth; for there is nothing on earth so precious as the mind, soul, character of the child; or, in the language of Everett, that the office of the teacher, in forming the minds and hearts of the young, and training up those who are to take our places in life, is all important; or in the words of President Humphrey, that the schoolmaster literally speaks, writes, teaches, paints for eternity; his pupils are immortal beings, whose minds are as clay to the seal under his hand. But such generalities, however just and true, fail to convey to our minds an adequate or vivid conception, either of the actual or possible results of the teacher's work.

Let us look at this subject a little more in detail. Let me conduct you, in imagination, to a modest edifice erected for the purpose of primary education, in a retired street in one of our Atlantic cities. Let us enter and observe the occupants and their doings. Here are fifty or sixty children, of both sexes, in the first year of their schooling, being from five to six years of age. The presiding genius who receives us so courteously, welcoming us in tones of peculiar sweetness, is a lady whose natural endowments and opportunities of education have combined to form the true teacher. The cleanly, tidy, well behaved children, seem to be under some magic influence. Some of them are from homes of poverty and ignorance, and yet they appear like a company of brothers and sisters. Their happy, cheerful faces suggest no unpleasant restraint, and yet perfect order reigns. Here you seem to see for once the solution of the eternal problem of uniting liberty with law, freedom with government. Every one is intent upon work as though it were no task, but an agreeable pastime. The lessons proceed. How the mind of the

teacher seems to enter into the minds of the pupils! With what a combination of patience, gentleness, sympathy and energy every process is conducted. How the minds and hearts of these children open to receive instruction as the flower opens to light and rain! Weariness is prevented by frequent and regular alternations of work, play, and physical exercise. The air is kept pure and the temperature equable. Here we see these scores of children, without the loss of a day, are at once set forward on the true path of moral and intellectual life; conscience is awakened, and its dictates practically obeyed; manners are formed; right habits are acquired; curiosity is aroused and gratified by imparting rational instruction. They are taught what they need first to know, for comprehending more easily what is to follow. Nothing is learned which they will need to unlearn; their first operations being so guided, that without altering any of their habits, they can more easily produce what is excellent in future. They are beginning to learn to love the good, the beautiful, the true. Their teacher is to them the model and pattern of all excellence. Here we feel sure that the twig is bent in the right direction; and yet this is no fancy sketch.

Let us now imagine that the nation's whole bright tribe of childhood, were thus instructed and trained up in the way they should go—so educated not only in the first *year* of their schooling, but that in each successive grade of their course they should be carried forward with a corresponding perfection of skill, till they go out into the world, whether graduating from the district school, from the high school, or from the university,—let your imagination conceive what would be the results, what moral rectitude, what mental ability and accomplishment would be achieved, and you have some notion of the mission of teachers considered in a national point of view.

Now just in proportion as we elevate the character and promote the interests of the profession of teaching, we shall approach the realization of this ideal of the teacher's mission.

And if we look back over the educational history of America for the space of a quarter of a century, we shall find much to encourage and stimulate our efforts in this high endeavor. Within that period a great and salutary change has taken place respecting the vocation of teaching. Its advancement in respectability, influence and efficiency, has been marked and rapid. The number of able and learned persons of both sexes who are devoted to it, has been increased many fold. The rate of compensation has been increased probably fifty per cent. Its labors have been rendered more agree-

able and attractive by the classification and grading of schools, and by the vast improvements which have been made in school architecture. At the dedication of one of the large grammar schools in Boston, a year or two ago, a member of the Corporation of Harvard University, a wise man who weighs his words, said in presence of the late president of that university, and an ex-president, that the head of such a school was the president of a college to all intents and purposes. The establishment of normal schools, now found in most of the educating states, may be regarded as a substantial recognition of teaching as a distinct and liberal profession. Well did Mr. Mann say at the dedication of the first normal school house ever erected in America, "I consider this event as marking an era in the progress of education on this continent and throughout the world."

Already the highest literature of the day is beginning to class teaching with the learned professions, an admission of no little significance. In consequence of the great increase of desirable situations in teaching and superintending schools, some of the best graduates of our colleges are beginning to choose this profession in preference to those of law, medicine, and divinity, as affording an inviting career for a young man of generous ambition, who wishes to make the most of himself as a man, and at the same time to employ his talents for the improvement of the lot of his fellow creatures. In view of such facts as these, we can not but feel encouraged to pursue the objects of this association with zeal and animation.

One of the principle means of elevating the character of teachers is to increase the demand for accomplished teachers. And this demand will be increased as the progress of education is advanced, and its value is appreciated. After all that can be done for the improvement of education, it is substantially what the teachers make it. The stream can not rise higher than its fountain. If asked to describe in the fewest words, the best system of public instruction, I should say it is that which secures and retains the services of the best teachers. To accomplish this, three things are requisite:

1. The situation of the teacher must be made desirable, by adequate compensation, by good treatment, by suitable accommodations, and by limiting the labors to the requirements of health and self-improvement.

2. The mode of selecting and appointing teachers should be such as to encourage the competition of the best qualified candidates, and to give merit the preference over every other consideration.

3. The proper means should be employed to secure continued

self-improvement on the part of teachers; and with this view they should, as far as practicable, be commended, promoted, and rewarded in proportion to their advancement, and degraded or removed for delinquency and neglect of duty.

As in this country the control of educational affairs rests ultimately with the people, the accomplishment of these objects requires that the popular mind should be enlightened upon the subject. Here then is the great paramount work which, as members of this association, we should keep in view—to diffuse useful information on the subject of education. The nature and objects of education, its value and importance to the individual, to the community, and the state; the kind and degree to be desired; the means and methods of securing it,—these are the great leading topics in regard to which the people need to be informed. Every teacher owes it to his profession, as well as to the cause of education, to improve every available opportunity to promote this object, by his pen and voice, and by aiding in the circulation of educational documents.

Public opinion should be especially educated to a liberal, though judicious provision, for the support of institutions of learning. It is a capital error to suppose that a high standard can be maintained at a cheap rate. I have seen, not without sentiments of disapprobation, a competition in certain cities and towns to see which can show the smallest expenditure per scholar. I should rather take pride in showing how large a sum is expended, provided that the outlay can be proved to be judiciously employed. Educational reports, both local and state, constitute the principal channel through which this information is to be diffused. Who can estimate the vast influence of the twelve Reports of Horace Mann, as Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education? His fifth Report has probably done more than all other publications within the last twenty-five years to convince capitalists of the value of elementary instruction as a means of increasing the value of labor.

Notwithstanding the advance which has been made in the rate of wages paid to teachers, inadequate compensation is by far too general. I measure the standard of education in any city or town by the rate of salaries paid the teachers. There may be exceptions in particular schools. Still, in my judgment, this is the best general test. As a rule, talent is sure to go where it is best appreciated and rewarded. On this point school officers and the people are not sufficiently enlightened. We should endeavor to make every body understand that cheap education must generally be poor education, and that good education must cost money.

But what belongs to teachers themselves to do more than any thing else, in furtherance of the objects of our Association, is the study of the science and art of education—that department of knowledge which is strictly professional. The want of enterprise in this respect, I think, may justly be charged upon teachers as a body. Nor is this deficiency peculiar to any particular class or grade of teachers. It applies to professors in colleges as well as to teachers of common schools, to those who are engaged in the business of education as a permanent profession, and to those who make it a temporary sojourn while on the way to another profession. Of the one hundred thousand teachers in the country, how few are thoroughly versed in the educational literature of the day? But a small part of this number ever see even an educational periodical. A still smaller part have read any books on the subject of education. And how very few even of those who are receiving the higher salaries can boast of a respectable educational library. Scarcely any foreign books relating to the subject are imported, and the number of volumes annually published and sold in this country is, I had almost said, ridiculously small, considering the number of persons who ought to be readers of such works. If proof of this unwelcome truth was needed it would be sufficient to refer to a single publication—I mean *Barnard's Journal of Education*—which has now reached its thirteenth volume, a library in itself. Costing little, considering the amount of matter it contains, embracing exhaustive treatises on almost all departments of education; yet, I am told that the number of copies sold has not been sufficient to pay for the stereotype plates. This fact is not complimentary to American teachers as a body. Of the numerous teachers whom I have known, how few can I name who have made education a study, who have read to any considerable extent on its philosophy, its methods, its institutions, its biography, and its literature. Here, then, in my judgment, is found, to-day, the most practical and efficacious means of a speedy elevation of the character of our profession. Of course a broad and solid basis of general education is an indispensable requisite to form the accomplished teacher, but let every teacher, according to his ability, procure and read the best books and periodicals on education, and incalculable benefits would be the results. It would work a revolution in the profession, and at the same time, prove an efficient means of promoting education.

Professional study consists mainly in learning from the experience of others. This is the means and condition of all progress. Without it civilization itself would be impossible. I know of nothing

more unwise in teachers than that disposition which too many have to rely solely on their own personal experience for information respecting their vocation. Such teachers rarely attain to even mediocrity in their profession, and never to eminent success. The most successful are those who learn from others as well as by their own experiments.

I would commend the wise words on this point taken from "The Schoolmaster," the earliest, and one of the best works in the language on education, by Roger Ascham, who was himself thoroughly imbued with the wisdom of the ancient philosophy:

"Surely long experience doth profit much, but most, and almost only to him that is diligently before instructed with precepts of well doing. For good precepts of learning be the eyes of the mind, to look wisely before a man, which way to go right, and which not. Learning (the recorded experience of others,) teacheth more in one year than experience in twenty; and learning teacheth safely, when experience maketh more miserable than wise."

I have spoken of only one of the objects of our Association,—that of elevating the character and advancing the interests of the profession of teaching. The other great object of our efforts, as set forth in the preamble to our constitution, is "to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." Time will not permit me to enlarge upon this province of our labors. But of this we may be assured; whatever tends to elevate and improve the character and qualifications of teachers, contributes also to the progress of education; and on the other hand, whatever tends to advance the cause of education, must, at the same time promote the interests, and improve the character of teachers. The two objects, therefore, for which we profess to work, are essentially one and the same.

In conclusion I present the following summary of the recent movements and improvements in education, and of what, in my judgment, ought to be done to promote the cause.

I. Recent movements and improvements.

1. Primary schools have been much improved.

2. Progress has been made in reference to truancy and compulsory education.

3. Much has been done to introduce and to perfect Object Teaching.

4. Physical education has been greatly advanced.

5. Much has been done to perfect courses of study for high, grammar, primary, and district schools.

6. A beginning has been made in establishing Technological and Industrial Institutes. The establishment of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in Boston, is an important movement for the application of science to the practical arts.

7. Public attention has been strongly turned to the subject of military education, and the necessity of competitive examinations for admission to the National Military and Naval Academies is beginning to be agitated.

8. The thorough grading of schools wherever it is practicable, has now become the settled policy of all enlightened educators.

9. Great progress has been made in establishing free public high schools.

10. Public libraries in cities, towns, and school districts, have been greatly multiplied.

II. Measures to be encouraged and advocated by the association for the advancement of popular education.

1. The appointment of a professor of education in every important college and university.

2. The appointment of superintendents of public instruction in all states, counties, cities, and important towns.

3. One or more normal schools should be established and maintained at public expense in each state.

4. The teachers of each state should maintain and conduct an educational periodical.

5. Teaching should be legally recognized as a profession.

6. The condition of teachers should be ameliorated by the payment of better salaries, and the requirement of less work.

7. Educational associations should be maintained in every state, county, and town.

8. Teachers should devote more attention to the study of the science and art of education.

9. A national bureau of education should be established at Washington.

10. A system of free public schools, comprising the primary, grammar, and higher grades, should be established, and supported by taxation in every state where such a system does not exist.

11. All schools should be graded where grading is practicable.

12. Educational men should be appointed to fill educational offices of every description.

13. Moral and religious training ought to be made much more prominent than it is.

14. The whole rising generation should be instructed in the principles of our republican government.

These are some of the topics which I would suggest for the future consideration of this association. And now

FELLOW TEACHERS:—Let us rejoice that we live in a day, and at a period of unexampled opportunities for usefulness and honorable effort. Let us congratulate each other that we have the blessed privilege of assembling in this place, from regions widely remote, to take counsel for the promotion of the moral and intellectual culture of the whole people—the highest earthly interest of society. While our sons and brothers, and friends, are on the field of battle, with arms in their hands, fighting and pouring out their life-blood for the preservation of our national integrity and Union, for the defence of free institutions and christian civilization, let us strive to act well our part by endeavoring to make our country worthy of such sacrifices and such heroes. Let us remember that peace hath her victories, and that it belongs to us to act a strenuous, patriotic, and heroic part for the welfare of our country, to go forth conquering, and to conquer in the domain of ignorance, achieving those peaceful triumphs which will insure our future prosperity and success, and enable us worthily to fulfill our destiny.

PHYSICAL EXERCISE IN SCHOOL.

BY S. W. MASON, PRINCIPAL OF HANCOCK GRAMMAR SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

So intimate and mutual is the relation of mind with matter, the mental with the physical, that the one can not be neglected without detriment not only to itself, but also dragging the other down to the same low level.

The body is constantly influencing the mind, and the mind as constantly influencing and controlling the conditions of the body; hence intellectual and physical culture and training should "go hand in hand;" if permitted, or by us forced to go apart, either will stray from its appropriate sphere, resulting in feebleness, failure, and premature decay, and the fate will be that of a "house divided against itself."

The laws of nature will not, can not be broken with impunity. Every attempt to cultivate the intellect, independently of its coördinate power, the body, must end, yea *will end*, in an ignoble failure, or a miserable defeat; but when these two powers so intimately by the Almighty connected, are made to act in unison and harmony, any thing within the limits of possibility, may be accomplished.

So apparent or demonstrable has been this mutual relation, that thoughtful men and educators, in all ages, have studiously sought to know how the one can be exercised for the greatest development and vigor of the other.

The necessity of training the powers of the mind by due bodily exercise has been acknowledged in all states of society, from the most primitive to the most enlightened.

As teachers we have committed to our care and parental keeping, beings of a material and an immaterial nature, not divorced, or by us to be divorced; but they are, and ever must be, mutually dependent on each other, and they should be so recognized by us, and properly trained and developed, in order that our pupils may grow up to the full stature of those made in the image of God.

The importance of systematic, rigid physical training, is now conceded by most educators; indeed so generally is it acknowledged,

that any argument in its favor is unnecessary for the purpose of arousing teachers to a proper sense of its value as a means of culture.

It is apparent to the most casual observer, that the Anglo American race has been deteriorating for a series of years. What teacher especially, has failed to observe, how common in the school-room is the "cramped stooping posture," the crooked spine, the contracted chest, the dull languid eye, the pale, haggard cheek, with its bright hectic, marking its possessor as a sure victim of that fell destroyer of our happy homes, consumption.

Conscious as we are of the sad decay going on around us, how to remedy the evil and restore pristine vigor to the youth of our land, through the legitimate channels of instruction, is now interesting the leading educators of the age.

Within a very short time a wonderful impulse has been given to the subject of physical education, and the attention of the wisest heads and kindest hearts has been turned in this direction, till some kind of systematic physical culture is expected, yea, demanded in our public schools.

I trust the current which has so auspiciously begun to flow, may run stronger and deeper, till all teachers shall not only be convinced that they have been derelict in this matter, but shall hasten to do works meet for repentance. Physical culture should be promoted systematically and persistently till it assumes a position in our public schools commensurate with its importance.

The particular form it shall take or the methods adopted for carrying it out, will long remain a matter of abstract and experimental investigation, each person interested, (and there is no live teacher but what is or should be interested,) contributing something of his experience and thought toward the realization of the grand object—the highest efficiency and well being of mankind, morally, intellectually and physically.

The expediency or practicability of introducing direct physical culture into our schools by gymnastic or calisthenic exercises has been, and is still, doubted.

The term, Gymnastic, conveys to the minds of many, erroneous impressions. It turns our school-rooms into mere gymnasia, bringing with it all the appliances of their intricate machinery. Books, slates, pens and pencils, must be exchanged for bars, poles and heavy weights, turning the activity of the school-room, induced by an interest in mental improvement, into gladiatorial shows and feats of athletes. And it is not strange that such impressions should

obtain, for gymnastics as practiced formerly in this country, have been so encumbered with the *endless* paraphernalia of the system that it has been, and is impossible, to introduce them into our schools. However beneficial they may have been, but few have been able to receive the benefits resulting from the system, and then only by resorting to some gymnasium, at a great expense of time and money.

So exclusive have been the gymnasia of this country that a great prejudice has existed against them, as the resort only of the low and vulgar, and gymnastics have been considered as tending to produce coarseness of manners and a combative disposition, and to raise up a nation of bullies and prize fighters; but this prejudice against gymnastics, as such, has been in a great measure overcome by the admirable system of New Gymnastics, which is so well adapted to interest, please and improve those who become acquainted with its beautiful and simple machinery, and practice its symmetrical movements.

The *Gymnasium*, under the new regime, is now the resort of the refined and cultivated. Much as we may admire the new system, it never can with all its apparatus be incorporated into our school system. Every practical teacher knows that there are insurmountable difficulties in introducing into our public schools apparatus of any kind, except where a room is appropriated especially to gymnastic purposes, and this we know is not practicable, and even if it were practicable, we believe that free movements without apparatus of any kind, stand preëminently as the best system for our schools, indeed, as the only system that can be introduced with any degeee of success into the school-room; hence they, and they only, can legitimately be called *school gymnastics*, and so happily are they adapted to the labors of the school-room that the question, not only of introducing, but of continuing them in our schools, is no more a matter of doubt than that Arithmetic, Geography, or any other essential branch of education should have its appropriate place in our school system. The use of apparatus of any kind is, and ever will be, a source of annoyance and torture to the teacher. We are supplied by one Creator with all the apparatus needed. "God never made his work for man to mend." Wands, bean-bags, dumb-bells, rings &c., must be bought, dropped, mislaid, lost or broken, so that when the hour of exercise comes round, numerous are the excuses why this or that one can not join the class, till the teacher becomes discouraged, and wishes he had never attempted to introduce gymnastics into his school, and in his haste condemns *all* physical exercise; while these free movements are always "on hand," and at a given signal all are ready

to commence without the vexatious delay of the long preparation in distributing the apparatus, and the oft repeated "ready," and with music and song, they constitute the very poetry of motion.

A series of motions, performed in exact time, either with or without music, each pupil knowing how many movements to make with a certain limb, the precise position to take, when, where, and how to change, without dictation from the teacher, the transition from one position to another being easy and natural, will be found a most agreeable auxiliary in the school-room.

The great hindrance to the successful introduction of physical exercises into our schools has not been from a want of interest in the subject, but because we have not the inclination, hence think we have not the time to arrange a series of exercises which should be both pleasant to the spectator, and easy, agreeable, and profitable to the pupil.

The first requisite for the successful introduction of calisthenic exercises into any school is, that the teacher of the school, (not a special teacher,) should have a series of movements arranged and classified. It is folly for any teacher to attempt to have pupils perform any physical exercise with pleasure and profit, unless he has in his own mind, a well defined idea, just what movements should be made, and he himself is able to make the exact motions required.

We should have faith in the utility and practicability of any series of exercises, as fitted to answer the end desired, and then when we have become familiar with them, if we are "apt to teach" in other things, we are prepared to instruct our own pupils.

"If we want any thing done well, do it ourselves." If we don't know how, let us learn or leave. These exercises should not be taken as a mere pastime, but for the purpose of accomplishing some specific object; yet, did I know, that they had no effect upon the mental, moral, or physical well being of my pupils, I should have them practiced in my school, for the pleasure they afford, and as a relaxation from close mental application. Knowing as I do the immense good, mental and physical, to be derived from a judicious practice of free gymnastics in the school-room, I would insist that every pupil, unless disabled, should take some arranged series of exercises daily.

When these free movements are understood and comprehended by the teacher, they are ready to be practiced at any time, even in the midst of a recitation, if perchance it languishes, on account of inattention or weariness. A few moments exercise will cause the blood which has on account of close application to study, been crowding

toward the brain, and causing stupor, to leap through the veins, promoting muscular development, quickening respiration and circulation, and giving the whole system life and energy. Joy reigns, the dull eye sparkles with delight, fun and frolic succeed, and the whole aspect of the room is changed, and the pupil prepared to enter upon the recitation with renewed vigor.

It needs no argument to prove that a well arranged series of free movements, persistently practiced, will not only be useful in giving proper development to the bodily powers, but they will be equally efficient in developing mental activity by inducing habits of order, and exactness in mental operations. Every position properly taken increases the influence of the will to move the muscle desired; the muscle is invigorated and the will strengthened; hence all motions should be symmetrical, uniform, precise; merely *moving* the limbs does not constitute a gymnastic exercise.

There should be a determination of the mind how a certain member of the body is to be moved to constitute a given position, and the members moving in obedience to the will, should make the predetermined position.

To raise the arm in a careless, heedless way, and let it fall as carelessly, or to thrust out the hand at random without determining beforehand, just where it should stop, and how long it should be in the transition from one point to another, can have but little effect either upon the mind or body; but when raised to a certain height, with a certain velocity and directness, as previously determined by the will, this constitutes a gymnastic position, and is beneficial; hence, precision must be exacted, and "to render any movement definite and exact, a point of departure, a point of termination, and the line through which the body or any of its parts must pass, must be clearly and precisely determined, as well as the rythm of the action itself."

Never should we leave a set of exercises till the utmost uniformity and precision is secured; so much so, that the pupils find *actual pleasure* in the perfect performance. "Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well." We soon become weary, *yea* disgusted with any exercise when we are conscious we do it imperfectly.

Short, active exercises, well done, will afford the greatest pleasure, and lay the foundation for successfully carrying out a well developed plan, embracing variety and system.

A proper system of school gymnastics is not confined to the mere motions of the limbs, by occasional exercise in the school-room. It is more general; it looks beyond the present out into the illimitable

future; it endeavors to make man, as he is, the noblest work of God, rendering mind and body susceptible of all the power, all the perfection of which they are capable. Its great object and aim is immediate good, and prospective happiness.

Nothing is more important, or more conducive to the happiness and health of our pupils, and their progress in study, than the ordinary positions of sitting and standing which they assume in school, and certainly no habits will cling to them with greater tenacity in after life.

What volumes of wisdom in the injunction of the wise man. "Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it."

Such being the force of habit, we ought to adopt such methods of standing and sitting as will insure for our pupils elegance of manners, and grace and dignity of carriage, combined with the best physical development.

Pupils should be required to sit in a certain position, a few minutes at a time, then change to some other, the positions being such as are adapted to their ease and comfort, and graceful and proper for them to take at all times, and in all places, instead of being permitted to loll at pleasure during school hours. Though it may seem a rigid plan thus to make pupils sit, they will not only acquiesce in the arrangement, but delight in it, on account of the uniformity and beauty; and with little effort on the part of the teacher it can be secured.

Great care should be taken with the standing and walking positions of pupils. To walk on tip-toe with hands clasped behind, though quiet may be secured, the greater good of comfort and health is sacrificed. It is impossible thus to walk erect; the head is necessarily thrown forward, the chest cramped and every motion is unnatural. The habit of having the arms folded in front either in sitting or standing is neither graceful nor healthy. Let pupils sit erect, shoulders thrown down and back, arms hanging naturally by the side or akimbo, hands resting on hips. Let them assume such attitudes as will conduce to their present comfort and future happiness. Make the child as near as possible what you would have the man or woman.

The man of erect form and commanding presence, such as a correct system of gymnastic free movements develops, is sure to make a more favorable impression in life than one of sloping form, rounded shoulders, and sunken chest. He enjoys better health, possesses increased powers for usefulness, realizes more and more that he, made in the image of God, has more for which to be grateful than he who goes with bowed head all his days.

In introducing free movements into our schools, we should guard against commencing too rapidly. Pupils are apt to begin any physical exercise too rapidly, and accelerate the movements till they become confused, and there is no definiteness in them. They should be so slow that exactness can be secured. All motions of the head should be made very slowly and with measured precision, else dizziness will be induced, rendering the movements injurious rather than beneficial.

Let the breathing be slow and deep, the lungs as fully expanded as possible, especially when any sudden outside pressure is applied to the chest. In all exercises, inhalation and exhalation should be through the nose, the proper organ of respiration. "God breathed into man's nostrils the breath of life."

Do not attempt too much at one time. Five or ten minutes is long enough ordinarily for exercise, if properly done, and if not properly done one minute is too long. If pupils have been systematically trained for any considerable time, they can and will exercise one hour with less apparent fatigue than at first, five minutes.

At first many of the lads in my school, were obliged to sit and rest after a few moments exercise; parents would call requesting me not to compel their boys to exercise, for it made them lame, and they really thought I was permanently injuring their boys; and in fact, the simple system of free movements which we had adopted was made the scape-goat upon which was laid all the aches and pains which flesh was heir to; yet with kind, judicious treatment, it has not only survived the first trial, but the very parents who at first condemned the movements are loudest now in their praise; and I know that for the past three years nothing has been more conducive to the comfort of the teacher and the benefit of the pupils, than gymnastic exercises.

I might give many examples showing the great benefit which has accrued to my pupils since the introduction of regular physical exercises into the school. One must suffice; a lad who stood at the head of his class, who had an active mental organization, but a feeble physical development, was told by his worthy mother, when he came to my room, not to join in the physical sports with the other boys. She could not, she would not, have her boy ruined to gratify any man's whims. I saw the father and mother and tried to reason with them, endeavored to show them that judicious exercise was just what their son needed. No, it was a hobby of mine, and I had better try the system with my own children. When I told them it really did other boys good, made them better and happier, they

replied that their son was not like other boys. These parents are not alone in the estimate of their children. Every parent thinks his child is an exception to the general rule. These kind parents said their boy took no interest in play at home, had no desire to play with boys on the street, took no delight in the usual sports of boyhood, but was a sober, noble, manly boy, caring most for his books; he needed very tender care, our calisthenic movements were too severe. I loved that boy, as I love all my boys, and I was determined, if possible to save him from an early grave. He had, before coming to my room, been obliged to be absent much of the time on account of his health, and it seemed to me that unless he would exercise with other boys he could not complete his school course; I believed the positions as taken by others would really be a "movement cure" for him, and by much persuasion he was allowed to practice with the other members of the class. He soon showed signs of improvement, became lively and happy, and during his last school year, never neglected to exercise with his class; he was not tardy a moment nor absent a day during the entire year, increased his chest measurement more than three inches during the year, never studied so hard, never recited so well, and never was more happy, than when, with the greatest enthusiasm he joined in physical sports. And when that good mother took me by the hand as that noble, lively, manly boy of hers left my school, with the Franklin medal on his neck, an honor to any school, and a praise to any teacher, she thanked me for the interest I had taken in her boy, and especially was grateful because I had compelled him to join in our gymnastic exercises; and but a few days since the father of the lad told me that he stood at the head of his class in a well known literary institution, was a strong, healthy young man, and "I attribute his success" said he, "in a great measure to those simple physical exercises which I so unjustly condemned."

I speak of what I know, and testify of what I have seen when I say that scholars are better and teachers happier by the daily practice of free gymnastics in school.

If we as teachers take this matter of physical exercise in school into serious consideration, determined to cultivate the physical well-being of our pupils as enthusiastically and systematically as we do the intellectual, we shall see even in our day, a better and happier, because a healthier race, coming on to the stage of action, and future generations will rise up and call us blessed.

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VI. THE TEACHER AS AN ARTIST.

BY Z. RICHARDS, A. M.

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EVERY man engaged in a lawful and necessary pursuit, can gain honor and success, by faithfulness and devotion to it; and he may justly consider such a pursuit as important and respectable. As a general thing, it is not the business, or the trade itself, but the arts and the tricks, or some signal success, which secures preferment and honor. The business of the honest and industrious cordwainer, is as respectable as that of the cunning pettifogger, or wily politician. It is not strange, or unreasonable, that those who become zealous and successful in the pursuits they have chosen, should have more and more exalted ideas of their importance.

Being called upon, not long ago to act as a *bearer*, it was our fortune to ride to the grave, with the undertaker, who discoursed to us learnedly and eloquently upon the trials, labors, and responsibilities of his profession, (as he termed it;) and he poured forth a profusion of *words*, to convince us that his business required moral qualities and business talents of the very first order; though we failed to be impressed with any thing more important in his work, than that of *decently* and *quietly* burying the dead out of our sight.

While we would not detract a single mead of honor, justly due to any other profession, nor attach to the work of the teacher, an importance or merit which it can not reasonably claim, we must be allowed to say, that the longer we live and the more we understand the teacher's mission, the more we are inclined to place it highest in the scale of importance, if not of honor. In order to better elucidate the views we entertain, we have chosen to consider "*the Teacher as an Artist.*" For our present purpose we will define an *Artist to be a person, who by his own ingenuity, training and skill, makes use of natural objects, in representing, combining, and constructing such works as may be necessary or useful to man.* An imitator or copyist, is not, therefore, necessarily an artist. An artist's work must be *necessary* and *useful*, in order to give him a claim to the name and character of an artist. It is sometimes said, that "man's necessities are few;" but we choose to consider *any thing necessary*, which

will aid in securing a more perfect development and training of the powers and faculties with which we are endowed. Any human work is *useful*, which truly and legitimately, administers real gratification to any *one*, or to *all* the human senses. Why should that work or art, for the sake of distinction, be called *useful*, which merely secures for us *food*, *clothing*, and luxuries? Why is it any more *useful* to provide means for a good dinner, a good house, or a good equipage, than for a good picture, a fine piece of sculpture, for good music, or for a good education? Any instrumentality, which will administer proper gratification, is useful; and he who creates or provides it, is to that extent, a useful citizen and an artist. He, then, who designs and executes a true and beautiful picture, or piece of statuary, really performs a *useful* work. The sense of sight, if not as necessary to our life, as that of taste, is surely necessary to our comfort and happiness. The eye loves to look upon beautiful objects, not for its own sake, but for the pleasure it gives to the *inner*—the spiritual being. Again, he who originates a fine thought, or prepares the mind for its reception, is doing a useful work, and is an artist. He, then, who is engaged in developing and training the mind and character of a child, and possesses the proper qualifications for such a work, may properly be called an artist-teacher. Let not our friends, the professional artists, consider us as ultraists or intruders, if as amateurs, in their art, we see fit to apply the name of *artist* to one whose work is to mold the mind and cultivate the heart. We think we are not mistaken in our estimate of the importance of such a work, when we say that the true teacher has a higher claim to the name of artist, than he has been wont to claim for himself, or than others have been willing to allow. Very many of the friends and advocates of the Fine Arts, claim that they stand *first* among the causes which tend to promote civilization and the most refined state of human society; that wherever we find the arts in their highest perfection and glory, there we find the most refined and elevated human character. We are not now disposed to controvert these claims, although we consider them unjust, and based upon short sighted and superficial views. As friends of true progress, we claim that *art* is the *consequent*, rather than the *antecedent* of civilization and refinement. Their several influences are doubtless reciprocal; upon the same principle that *effects* sometimes become *causes*. Art will promote civilization, but it is not therefore the cause of civilization. The mountain spring will furnish me with water; but springs are not therefore the *cause* of water, but water the cause of springs. Those therefore who invert the order of

sequence, in comparing the results of *art* and of *civilization*, should bear in mind that they do the cause of civilization and moral progress, as well as of art itself, great harm. When we hear the advocates of art, claim, and openly announce, that morals and even Christianity itself, are improved and elevated, and beneficially modified by the arts, we must conclude that they have failed to recognize the fact, that the Religion of Divine Revelation, came from the hands of the Great, the Supreme Artist: that whatever defects may be exhibited in the exemplification of our holy religion, have arisen from the influence of imperfect men; and that He who is perfection itself, could have never devised an imperfect plan for the spiritual training of immortal beings. It may be true that the church has been the patron of the arts; but in no true sense, that the arts have been the patrons of pure religion. If the arts have modified Christianity, they have done so by introducing *materialism* and *iconism* in violation of the *first* and *second* great commands of Jehovah. The arts when used for the service and promotion of religion must ever be kept subservient to the perfect principles, which they are intended to represent; for as no picture or representation can come up in its character and spirit, to the real thing, it is to represent, so no degree of art, can improve that heaven-born gift to man, Christianity. We have no intention or wish to detract a single iota from the real claims of art, or from the merits of artists, nor from the value and importance of their productions. Far from it. We seek rather to enhance their value and elevate them upon correct principles, by using our mite of influence in trying to make the people understand, that he who administers true gratification and pleasure to man through the eye, or any of the five senses, is as truely a benefactor, as he who can multiply means for healthful food and necessary clothing.

In order the more fully to particularize and illustrate the requisite qualifications of the teacher as an artist, we will *first* consider the *subject*, which is to furnish the theme for his consideration and skill: *next* the *kind* and *variety* of *material*, which is to be used in the production of his work; again, the *instrumentalities* necessary to be used; and *finally*, the *object* to be secured in the *completion* of his work.

First, then, the *subject* of the artist-teacher is a human, moral, immortal and accountable being, in an undeveloped, untrained, and uneducated state.

This being is to be developed, trained and educated, so as to bring out all its powers and capacities. The *body*, with its *eye*, ear,

and all other physical powers; the mind, with its various faculties, *perception*, consciousness, original suggestion, abstraction, memory, reason, imagination, and taste, constitute the elements of the teacher's subject, which are to be so educated and trained; or in the artist's language, so thrown upon the canvass, or so hewn and polished, as to form a character so perfect, that, in the abodes of eternal future bliss, it may be received by the Divine Artist, as a trophy of the handiwork of our Great Redeemer. Truly this work of the artist-teacher, this subject, the training of an immortal soul, is full of inspiration, and can not fail to awaken the warmest zeal of all who are qualified to appreciate it, and enter upon the duties which it imposes. What other artist can find a subject for his brush, his pencil, or his chisel, with elements of such unmistakable value, and of such heaven born perfection? While the subjects of the artist-teacher are so few, we see they are rich in suggestive elements, and of transcendent importance because they make up all that is of real worth in our present or future being. Though the teacher has fewer but more valuable elements in his subject than the artist, yet the artist has the decided advantage in the number and variety of his subjects and objects. Of course in selecting his subjects, he may go from the grave to the gay; from the sublime to the ridiculous, to please every fancy, and gratify every taste and whim, and meet every demand of the market. If he wishes to represent a certain portion of the human race, (I will not say how large,) who have just brains enough to appreciate the grotesque and ridiculous, who ignore and abhor all originality of thought and invention, by resorting to deception and treachery, he may select an *ape*, whose whole existence is spent in antics, imitations and tricks; or he may select for his subject a certain animal, (not to be named,) remarkable for its propensity to *root*, to *grunt*, and to be *contrary*, to represent another class of the human species, who never seem to be so well pleased, as when they can supplant others; grumble and find fault, whether things go *well* or ill; and *oppose* every thing, which they themselves do not propose. Or, he may take a higher and nobler subject, for a higher and nobler object, like the *lamented Cole*, in his "*Voyage of Life*," who selected a stream, bearing from its source, over currents now gentle, and now rapid, in weather clear and calm, or dark and stormy, a little bark, freighted with a human immortal, destined, after passing through life's various stages, to reach the ocean of eternity. As already intimated, his subject may be trivial or grave, tame or wild, comic or tragic, high or low, living or dead, satanic or angelic. Just as different and various may

be the *objects* of different artists. The object of one may be caricature, of another reality; of one joy, of another, sorrow; of one curiosity and self-indulgence, of another, profit and advantage. If some of the works of some of our artists should be examined as to their merits, and their objects, we might with peculiar significance and emphasis inquire, "*cui bono?*" and in reference to others "*cui malo?*" In reference to the taste and judgment of artists, as to the utility and influence of works of art, we are inclined to believe that they are not always the most reliable. In fact, it is quite evident that the taste of the *uninitiated*, is in some instances quite as pure and elevated as that of many artists. Those artists deserve the highest commendation and favor, whose works excite the purest emotions, and incite to the noblest deeds. But it is rather too much to say, that some of the works of artists, though they may be true to nature, and perfect in their execution, do not awaken improper emotions, or even incite to evil. Shall we call his an uncultivated taste, which causes an instinctive revulsion and disgust at some of the exhibitions of nudity? It is true we may become accustomed to look upon nude figures, as we can upon a scene of slaughter, without horror and disgust. When the feelings have become blunted by frequent views of even a slightly repulsive figure, we find it easy to go on from step to step, in the way of indecent exhibitions, until, to an eye and taste, thus perverted, and corrupted, a *model artist* may look like an angel. But these facts by no means justify the liberties which are taken by some of our artists; neither do they prove that the tastes and judgments of artists are to furnish the criterion by which to estimate the merits of their works.

But the artist-teacher, though the number of his subjects is sufficiently large, finds in them all a sameness, and a measurable uniformity in their general characteristics, which, however, are greatly modified by various circumstances and influences. These modifying influences are found in the nursery, in the streets, as well as in the school. As we have before stated the teacher's subject is the soul,—the immortal part of our being, which has made its entrance into this world of sin and temptation, ready for the impressions of the artist-teacher, like the photographic plate or paper, with almost instantaneous effect. There is, however, a most striking and interesting fact to be noticed here, and that is, that the *first* impressions made upon these *spiritual tablets*, are the most vivid, the most lasting, and the most difficult to correct or to erase. How vastly important then, that he, who makes these *first* impressions, should so thoroughly understand his work, that he may be *sure* of making

them so nearly perfect at first as that they will need no correction nor erasure; for this work of correction and of erasure causes not only the waste of time, that precious boon to man, but an injury to the *material*. The mind is so tenacious of first impressions, that it is doubtful whether those which are wrong at first, will ever be so corrected as to lose their influence. We are now speaking of course of such teachers, as are artists in their profession; who are qualified by talent, education and special training, for the work of molding the plastic mind. But as all picture-makers and daubers are not *artists* in their professions, so neither are all who sway the rod, or sport with the name of teacher, *artist-teachers*. But, strange as it may seem, the courses pursued by the patrons of the painter or artist, and of the teacher, are remarkably different; for if they desire to procure a fine picture, or a tasteful piece of statuary, they do not hesitate at almost any expense, to employ a skillful and well known artist; but when they wish to have their children educated and fitted for the present and future life, they are too often contented with ignorant, untrained and inexperienced teachers. In fact, it is an almost universal custom in this money-loving, superficial age, to employ the youngest, cheapest, and consequently most inexperienced teachers, to begin the work of training, and of making all the *first* and prominent outlines of the intellectual and moral character. This is a strange inconsistency, and unwise and unprofitable as it is strange. Not so did the noble Queen of England, with those precious treasures, of Princes and Princesses, committed to her fostering care by God. For them, the best teachers in all her realm were secured, regardless of labor, care, or expense. This course has proved by the results, to be the true policy, as well as true economy.

But as the success of the artist depends very much upon the *kind* and the *quality* of the *material* which he uses, so the teacher will find his success greatly dependent upon the quality and condition of the minds committed to him. The artist can generally *select* his material. If he wishes to perform a work which will make him an honorable reputation, and stand the test of time and criticism, he will select the finest and best material, without regard to cost or trouble. If this material should be injured or destroyed, or rendered unfit for use, he can readily find a substitute. But the teacher must take such materials as are put into his hands. *His* canvas may have become soiled or disfigured; his block of marble may have come from a bad quarry; or in other words, the intellectual faculties may be weak, exposed to unfavorable influences, to bad parental teaching; unrestrained and untrained; or only trained by the cor-

rupt and baneful influences of the rabble, and of the devotees of pleasure and vice. No matter what may be the condition or the quality of mind, as to purity, power and outside influences, the artist-teacher *must take* his subject; and he is expected, of course, to train and polish it, and send it back to his patron, one of the finest specimens of his art. Every parent believes, of course, that the subject from his own quarry, or nursery, is as pure and fine as the best; and if the teacher can not produce a fine work of art from it, he is at once condemned as stupid and unskillful. The skill of the teacher, like the artist, if he pleases all his patrons, will chiefly consist in not only giving the finest kind of finish, to that which is faultless, but in covering up, as far as possible, all defects which can not be removed. But the teacher's work, not like the artist's, must be done up in a hurry, in a limited time; no matter what may be the defects, nor how long it may take to correct them. The hard, flinty, shaky block, must be chiseled into a graceful, unblemished and finished statue, in the same time and at the same expense, as the soft delicate and perfect piece of alabaster. We can not particularize the defects of the materials which come into the *teacher's studio;* but if he is a master-workman and an artist, he will be able to detect the defects; and will be unfit for his calling, if he can not do it. It is no small part of the teacher's qualifications, if he would succeed in his work, to make himself master of that skill, which is necessary in supplying the defects of his subjects. As that artist is most skillful and successful, who can make a good work of art out of poor materials, so that teacher is the best, and worthy of the most honor, though it is rarely bestowed, who can make *good* pupils out of *bad* subjects.

As to the instrumentalities to be used, the teacher has the decided advantage over the artist. High, intellectual and moral qualifications, and special training are necessary, and indispensable to distinguished success by either; but superiority of intellect and qualifications belongs most especially to the teacher; inasmuch as his subjects and materials are more precious, delicate, and valuable; and the consequences of failure, or of success, more momentous. The almost infinite variety of modes and expedients, to which the teacher is compelled to resort, over and beyond those of almost any other profession, results from the great variety and different degrees of intellectual powers, affected by such an infinite variety of influences. Even the productions of artists do, and should become important instrumentalities in the teacher's hands. Perhaps no age nor country has more highly appreciated the value of pictorial illustrations

than ours. It is true that more than two hundred years ago, *John Amos Comenius*, (Bishop of Comna, in Moravia,) *first* introduced successfully the artist's skill, as a special aid in training the young. There may be grave defects in some of the methods of getting up illustrated School Books; but it must be admitted that the fine arts have an important mission to fulfill among the educational instrumentalities of the age. They should receive attention and an appropriate place in our system of education for the masses, as well as for the few. But our *teachers* must first be required to receive *at least an elementary training* in them, and have their *tastes* so cultivated, that they may be able to perceive and appreciate their utility, as well as what is true and false, in what are claimed to be works of art. Besides the instruction in the arts must be brought within the means and abilities of all, like other common studies. For the benefit of the fine arts themselves, should they be taught in all our schools. To our schools must the artists look for those who are to succeed them, and bear along the honors of the profession. Here the artists themselves receive that training which lies at the foundation of their success. In fact they may be considered the teacher's own handiwork. The artists may make pictures and statuary, but it is the work of teachers to make artists. Our distinguished artists have not become such by chance or arbitrary fate, any more than the distinguished of any other profession. Though no special instructions may have been given, yet a single word or incident by the parent or teacher may have been the turning and starting point of the artist's life. Therefore, let our teachers know *how* and *when* to delineate the beauties and utility of the fine arts, and the time would not be far distant, when the people would appreciate and patronize the works of art as much as they deserve. We can not here enumerate all the more important instrumentalities of the teacher's profession, but we can not be too emphatic in maintaining that all educators, who wish, or expect to become artist-teachers, must acquaint themselves thoroughly with the character and the use of these instrumentalities. The painter or the sculptor, who knows only how to use the pencil, the brush, or the chisel and hammer, may pencil, paint, chisel and hammer and polish, until the mechanical part of his work may equal that of an Appeles, or a Phidias, but without a thorough knowledge of the principles of his art, his fame and his influence as an artist, would be as circumscribed as that of the good man Pollock has described, "who thought the visual line which girt him round, the world's extreme." So the teacher, whose knowledge and skill in the use of appropriate educa-

tional instrumentalities are confined to mechanical reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, definitions of grammar, and the common localities of geography, may do well as far as he goes, but he, by no means deserves to be considered an artist-teacher; for his pupils will be as far from a thorough education, as a block of unformed marble, though beautifully dressed and polished, yet wholly unadapted to meet any useful purpose, will be from a work of art.

But what is the object of the teacher's work, or the end to be gained? We must acknowledge that low mercenary motives may actuate the teacher in his work, as well as the artist or man of any other calling. In relation to the importance of the great end to be gained by a thorough education, there can be but little difference of opinion; yet we have reason to fear that it is not fully understood, nor appreciated by very many who ought to know and realize its value best. To repeat what has been said a thousand times, that "the teacher's work is a momentous one," or to say "that it is second in importance to that of no other profession," will not probably make (others) value or think any more highly of the object of the teacher's work. To say that an object is a *good* one, and that *he* is worthy of honor, who is laboring, and wearing out his life to accomplish it, is not enough in this money-loving pleasure-seeking, and passion indulging age. The calling which ministers most to avarice, pleasure, and sensuality, will find the most admirers and patrons, and has done so in every age of the world. Not even the horrors of civil war, devouring its hecatombs of brave and noble patriots, and sending the death-knell into every neighborhood and hamlet in our land, can turn those men to sober thought, who are devotees to pleasure, passion, and mammon. What signifies it then to talk about the importance of the object, which the teacher has in view, when that object can not minister to avarice, pleasure, and passion? When to accomplish it even, will crown him with no wreath of fame or honor in this heartless world? The successful money maker and politician,—the man who loves and worships gold, and will sacrifice patriotism, country, honesty, and religion, to gain money and power, is the hero. The teacher may spend a life-time in molding and directing those minds which are to be the ruling spirits of the age in which they live, and yet go down to his grave with no adequate reward, "*unworshipped and unsung.*" The artist may die leaving his most meritorious work unappreciated while he lives, yet the true admirers of art, may in after time, realize its value, and hang it upon their walls as an object of instruction and admiration. But where is the niche or gallery for the work of the

artist-teacher? Who seeks his portrait? Who raises a monument to his name? But since he is no devotee to fame, why should he seek to be reckoned among her votaries? Though by no means free from the common weaknesses of human kind,—though his ear would be pleased, and his vanity tickled by the applauses and the eulogies of the multitude, yet their short-sightedness and misconception have shut him out from all prospect of such gratification, if indeed he should be so weak as to desire it. Yet the day *may* come, when the artist-teacher's name and fame shall be heralded forth as a benefactor of his race. But what higher object, what nobler and more honorable, can any aspirant after true fame, seek than that of developing and training the minds and hearts of those who are to guide the destinies of nations, and give character to their age? Trace the progress of that child, and the changes through which he has passed while in the hands of the artist-teacher. Unnaturally forced away from the influences of home and mother, which ought to be the purest and most potent of any on earth, (though unfortunately not always so,) that bright intellect, all undeveloped like the unhewn block, has been brought to form and beauty, so that where at first, the lineaments of mind could be scarcely traced, now can be seen a vigorous intellect, prepared to grapple with all the subtilties and profound philosophy of matter and spirit. That moral being, enveloped and tinctured with the corruptions of a fallen nature, has been brought out of the mists of sin, through the influence of truth, and a pure minded teacher, renovated and sanctified by divine power, through human instrumentality, so that, what at first seemed incorrigible and hopelessly perverse, has given place to honesty, uprightness, and a love for the holy and the pure.

As the painting or the statue exhibits the thoughts, feelings and motives, as well as the skill of the artist, so every child, and every adult, furnishes a living specimen, of the *habits*, mental traits, and moral character of their instructors. "*Like begets like.*" As is the artist, so is the picture; as is the teacher, so is the scholar. But in our comparison we meet one difficulty. The work of art has had *one* designer, *one director*, and *one executor*. Not so with the teacher. Rarely does he have the privilege of commencing and directing the whole education of the child. From necessity, mistaken policy, or whim, the master workman of the child's character is changed from time to time; once in a year or oftener, it may be. The child may not be pleased with the *polishing* and *brushing*, and the *master strokes* of his artist, and so the tender hearted parent seeks another artist. *Perhaps there may be a fault in our systems of public in-*

struction in this respect which needs correcting. Is there not? Here we would again refer to England's honored Queen. Let those who would obtain the same happy results in the education of their children, seek the best teacher in their power, and commit to him their entire education. Look at that young man who has just emerged from the studios of his different artists. Behold the marks of the various workmen. Why is that continued scowl or that suspicious smirk on those faces? Why that halo of joy, or that cloud of gloom? Why that simpering smile, or that forbidding frown? Why that cold repulsive mien, or that affectionate and attractive grace of manner? Why that constant air of distrust, or that hearty expression of confidence? Why that intellectual sluggishness, or that mental vigor and life? Why that disagreeable habit, that loutish gait, or that tidy, inviting, genteel appearance? Why that moral obtuseness and insensibility to the higher and nobler impulses of the soul? or that keen perception of right, that sensitiveness to wrong, that love of truth and hatred of falsehood?

Where indeed do all these numberless traits of the physical, mental, and moral being, take their origin, receive their culture and finishing polish if not from the artists, in the nursery, in the streets, and in the school-room? Who more than the artist-teacher is engaged in giving and directing those influences, which reach from the finite to the infinite, from earth, to heaven? and happy indeed is he, if to accomplish this great work, be the *primary object* of his labors. Every man, in his life-work, *should* have *two objects*, a *primary* and a *secondary;* a present and an ultimate; a general, and a particular. We have a present and a future state of being—a physical and a spiritual nature to care for. Our future spiritual being should certainly be the *primary* object of our care; while the present—the temporal, is a *secondary* though a legitimate and commendable object, when sought for in subserviency to our spiritual being. The teacher *may* be satisfied with his reward, if he secures only the primary object of life; but base indeed is the motive of him who enters upon the work of teaching, with no higher object than the honor and emolument of his office. No better are his motives, than those of the painter, who copies old pictures or devises new ones, merely to supply the market which a corrupt taste demands.

Before closing this essay, I should be happy to refer to some of the teachers not unknown to fame, who have deserved the name of *artist-teacher*. Before the advent of the *Great Teacher*, we find not a few, whom we shall ever be proud to recognize, if not as found-

ers, certainly as prominent leaders and pioneers, in the noble brotherhood of teachers. Pythagoras, Socrates, Aristotle, and Plato, are names which the profession to which we belong should claim as peculiarly its own—they were teachers and educators in the limited as well as in the broadest sense of those terms.

Since the advent of the Great Teacher, to whom, more than to all other teachers, we are indebted for all that is *pure*, *regenerating* and *sanctifying* in education, the rolls of fame contain a host of noble names, whose instructions, and influence as teachers, have given character to each succeeding age. Early in the Christian era, the best of teachers were sought and employed, by the friends and followers of the Great Teacher. The names of Pantænas, Origen, and Heraclas, are prominent among others. Almost every country of Europe can boast of names of distinguished teachers, who have given character to their age through their influence as instructors of youth. Every well-read and properly educated teacher should be familiar with the efforts of Sturm, Trotzendorf, Spalatus, Comenius, Ratisch, Neander, Hayden, Ascham, Locke, Pestalozzi, Fellenburg, Jacotot, and Arnold: and we might name many others, and enlarge upon the interesting characteristics, which have marked their labors and given them signal success. The biographies and characters of those artist-teachers, who have given honor and fame to our calling, in European countries, as well as in our own, should be carefully read and studied; and here I can not fail to recommend Barnard's "*American Journal of Education*," as being for the teacher, even more than Blackstone's "*Commentaries*" for the lawyer. Yes, the lawyer without his Blackstone, the physician without his medical jurisprudence, and the clergyman without his bible, might as well expect to gain fame, success, and honor in this day, as a teacher without the "*American Journal of Education*," or its equivalent. The names of those educational heroes whose history this Journal has given, will be handed down from generation to generation, to encourage other artist-teachers in their toil, *whose names* may be forgotten, but whose *works* will remain, and whose *record* will be on high.

THE POWERS TO BE EDUCATED.

BY THOMAS HILL, D. D. LL. D., PRESIDENT OF HARVARD COLLEGE.

As I was journeying towards this city to partake in the pleasures of this gathering I saw upon an island, in the northern part of yonder brineless ocean, a little collection of five or six houses, and among them one hut that attracted the attention of all our party. It was so low, that although the door nearly reached the eaves, a tall man might be forced to stoop to enter; it was so poor that neither glass nor sash was in its casements. Yet it was a palace wherein a queen was reigning and was rearing kings. It was a school-house built through the missionary zeal of a noble girl who after procuring its erection and gathering in it all the children of the island, gave two years' service to this school of less than a score of children, gratuitously, and now two other years with a pay that is merely nominal. As I heard the story of her generous labors, undertaken with no thought that they should be known and appreciated beyond the narrow confines of that lonely island; I felt a new sense of the dignity and grandeur of our profession as teachers and in my heart, thanked God that He had called me to such a goodly fellowship, embracing thousands of these humble but glorious laborers, one in purpose and devotion, with the teacher of North Manitou Island.

For as I heard the story, I endeavored to estimate the value of the work there, and measure as I would, I found it invaluable. Measure it by the cost of re-production, and it is immeasurable. For it is impossible to give to one already adult, instruction in the tender years of his youth. Measure by its utility and it is immeasurable; since the uses, to a man and to the community in which he lives, of the knowledge he may have gained and of the culture he may have received are innumerable, inestimable, and of eternal duration. Thus I was led anew to consider the greatness of the work of educating the young; and I thought I might be pardoned if I used this little school on Manitou Island as an introduction to the thoughts which I hoped to bring forward at this meeting.

The course of instruction, the true selection and arrangement of studies in liberal education, is evidently one of the most important

points in this great work, and yet a point which it seems to me is not discussed from a right point of view. In special Schools of Science and of Art the courses of instruction are frequently well considered, and both the selection and the arrangement of the topics studied are made upon definite and established principles. Not so with reference to our more fundamental schools of general liberal culture; in them, whether in the kindergarten and infant school, in the common school and academy, or in the college and university, either custom rules, or the course of study arises from a balance of powers among various teachers or members of a governing body; each zealously advocating the claims of some special branch of learning. There is no general recognition of any great principles controlling the whole matter,—no recognition of the need of having those principles reduced to a clear code for the government of educators.

In my own feeble attempts to supply this need,—which I could not, when I considered the great ability and zeal of my predecessors, and my cotemporaries, flatter myself would be much more successful than other men's failures,—I have thought that a general scheme for the guidance of liberal education might be safely built, only upon one of the three following foundations.

First, upon a thorough survey of the field of human activity; of the duties for which the pupil is to be prepared.

Secondly, upon a survey of the whole field of things which can be imparted by teaching.

Thirdly, upon a thorough survey of the powers which can be improved by training.

Either of these foundations being carefully prepared by an exhaustive survey would afford a safe basis on which wise and skillful men could build up a true scheme of education adapted to public and general needs, and adapted also, to the more special cases of brilliancy and genius, or of feeble mindedness on one or many sides. Of course, I assume that a true statement of the proper course and mode of instruction is possible, at least to thought, which shall include the education of a genius and of an idiot, as well as of the mass of men. I assume also, that a true course and mode of general liberal culture, built upon either of the three foundations above mentioned, would coincide with the true course and mode built upon either of the others. The safest mode of proceeding, therefore, will be for our best thinkers and writers to survey finally all three of these bases, to build upon them schemes of instruction, and by a comparison of these schemes to elicit at length, the correct mode. It may be the work of centuries to accomplish

this,—but when we look around us and behold what a populous wealthy and ancient city has been built about the fork of this little river within the lifetime of most of us present, we are emboldened to hope that great achievements in intellectual and social life will not henceforth require such wearisome years to finish.

But when we attempt a thorough survey of the field of human activity and duty, we find that field so rapidly enlarging and altering in its perspective that it is difficult to avoid omissions of parts which to day may seem of little worth, and to-morrow may prove all-important. At the time when the question was asked, what should boys be taught, and it was answered, that which they can use as men, it was supposed that Conic Sections were altogether idle and useless speculations. For two hundred years the school of Plato had studied the properties of those curves, and Apollonius had summed up the results in eight books filled with truths of marvelous beauty,—but of no known utility. Perchance it might have been then thought that the Conic Sections were unfit to be the study of a youth, because he could not put them to any use as a man. But after ten times two hundred years had passed, these very Conic Sections became the most practically useful of all objects of study, and every shipyard, and every ship's dock, every machine-shop, and every railroad track affords the amplest opportunities for applying them to practice.

From the errors into which we might fall by thus contracting our ideas of utility, we could be saved only by expanding them to that degree that the useful could no longer be distinguished from the visionary. Thus our first foundation for a scheme of liberal instruction, although theoretically sound, is practically difficult, and will be useful chiefly in confirming or correcting and modifying conclusions reached through an investigation of the other two.

The second foundation is a thorough survey of the whole field of things capable of being imparted by instruction. Upon this survey I have at sundry times made preliminary sketches and published the results.* Among those results is a rough map of the field of knowledge. I divide all human science into five grand divisions according to its subject matter. The first embraces Space and Time affording us the sciences of Geometry, Algebra, and Arithmetic. The second takes in the physical world, giving us the sciences of Mechanics, Chemistry, and Physiology. The third embraces the actions of men giving us the Arts and Fine Art, Language, and Law. The fourth takes in the spirit of man, giving us the sciences of Me-

* "*American Journal of Education*," Vol. v., for Map, see page 14, 45

taphysics, Æsthetics, and Ethics. The fifth contemplates the Divine Being and gives us the sciences of Natural and Revealed Religion. I have on sundry public occasions endeavored to show that this rough sketch of the field of knowledge affords the best guide to education; that these sciences naturally follow each other in the order here given; and are to be learned only in that order, consciously or unconsciously followed; and that any attempt to invert the order leads only to a necessity of teaching the lower truth covertly and awkwardly, instead of openly and naturally.

But I propose to-day to bestow some thought upon a preliminary sketch of the third foundation of a true scheme of general liberal culture, that is, the survey of the powers which can be improved by training.

A child is a will governing a body, at the impulse of passion, and under the guidance of reason. The body, the mind, the feelings, and the will,—these constitute the four great divisions of our subject, man. The body is of course incapable of education, except when living, that is, in connection with the mind and feelings and will. The first function of the body is, then, to receive impressions from the outward world, communicating sensation to the mind, awaking thought, arousing feeling; their combination exciting desire, desire ripening into purpose, purpose culminating in volition, and volition manifesting itself in muscular movement, a movement of the body. This is an epitome of human history, and an inventory, in brief, of human powers,—capable, therefore, of serving as a basis of a true scheme of education.

The first intellectual or spiritual use of the body is, I say, to receive impressions from the outward world, and communicate sensations to the mind. In order to do this well, it must be in a healthy condition, and to this end, the teacher is to guard sedulously his pupils against all hindrances to healthy growth. Actual growth comes only through divine action and divine law,—disease and deformity through hindrances and perversions introduced by error and sin. The requisites to healthy growth are, first, healthful food, fresh air and sunlight and freedom of motion; secondly, proper alternations of rest, such as fasting and sleep and darkness; thirdly, absence of poisons and of unnatural excitements of any kind, such as pampering of the appetites and passions.

This matter of physical training and of the care of the health, I pass by for the present, only beseeching my fellow-teachers not to pass it by in the detail of their school labors. I will only allude to a single point of detail, because I conceive it to be of such over-

whelming importance, so little understood by the majority of teachers, and neglected by them to the terrible injury of their pupils. You who have the care of young children, I beseech you watch over their purity. No more fearful loss can befall a child than to lose its purity of heart. I beseech you, therefore, to impress upon your children with all the eloquence of your affection, this sacred rule. Never to do or say any thing which they would be unwilling to have you see and hear. Remind them that God always sees them, and plead with them frequently and with earnestness, even to tears, not to do or say in His sight any thing which they would be unwilling to do or say in yours. There are sins which you would not warn them against for fear of soiling their minds by the suggestion,—but press upon them this rule with sincere and affectionate earnestness, and they will seldom need any plainer speech.

The first intellectual use of the body is to communicate sensations to the mind. Whether the power of sense can be increased by education is a doubtful and debated point. My own opinion, founded upon careful experiments which I have not now time to relate, is that direct delicacy of sense is an original gift, not capable of direct increase by training. Physical causes may increase or diminish it, as taking cold, for example, may blunt hearing and taste and smell, but render the eye sensitive to light,—but by no process of education can any such effect be produced.

A great deal, however, can be done in educating the ability of judging on sensations;—increase of skill can be produced by training;—and increase of skill is equivalent to increase of power. The powers of sense, coming logically first in the sketch of human nature which I have made, and being first of all, powers in the order of development in the child's growth, should be first educated. This is done first of all by objects,—and thus the object teaching of the modern schools and kindergartens is rightly given to young children. But let me warn young teachers that as there is no royal road to geometry, so neither is there any mode of teaching which can render an inefficient and indifferent teacher successful. Lessons from objects as well as lessons from text-books can be learned by rote, and object teaching like recitation easily degenerate into routine. No matter what the system is, it may in the hands of sleepy and thoughtless teachers, degrade all our schools, like the one visited by Dr. Brown, into "silent cemeteries of oblivion,"—or it may, in the hands of earnest, enthusiastic and sensible teachers, arouse the pupils to new life and lead them to knowledge and to virtue. The object of object teaching is to lead children to observe, but a

set of stereotyped questions upon a few dozen specimens in a museum box in the school-room will no more teach children to observe what is under their feet and around them on their way through life, than the setting of tasks in a book for memoriter recitation.

Simultaneous with the development of the powers of sensation, is the awakening of a power of perceiving truths independent of sense. There can be no direct sensation without indirect consciousness of your sensation, consciousness of your own existence and generally of your possession of a bodily organ through which the sensation comes, perhaps of the free movement of the organ to bring it into a position to receive the impression from a something, which is neither your mind, nor its organ of sensation. The fundamental antithesis of philosophy is, that brought to knowledge, and at the same moment, it is perceived that these bodily organs and this visible and tangible world, lie in space and time. The soul sees by direct inspection the existence and properties of space and time, not inferring them logically from the properties of extension, nor being forced by a law of mind to a fiction of their existence,—any more than it is forced to a fiction of its own existence,—but seeing then by a direct inward vision; having its attention called to them, however, by the phenomena of nature manifested in them,—just as its attention is directed to its own existence, only at the instant of its perception of phenomena not itself. These powers of direct perception external and internal, are as I have said, to be cultivated earliest, not with the hope of increasing the actual capacity of the soul,—for that seems to vary only by original gift or by physical condition,—but with the well-grounded hope of increasing the skill of using these powers to an almost indefinite degree. These fundamental powers of direct vision of truth are divine and inexplicable even in their native state, and in their cultivated condition afford us the highest objects of adoration and wonder as tokens of the kindred of man to the Infinite Deity. By education any one sense may be made to serve the purposes of all the senses, and even to supply the place of the higher powers. Thus with those blind from birth, hearing although no more acute than in other men, serves to give a thousand kinds of information which we can not conceive of as coming through the air. What sort of house is this that we are passing? I asked a blind friend, and he replied without a moment's hesitation guided only by the echo of his footsteps, "A little two-story brick house with a low wooden paling fence about three feet in front of it."

Next in order, after the powers of direct perception, external and internal, comes the powers of memory and mental reproduction. That such a power is absolutely essential to the exercise of any of the higher functions of the soul will be manifest, when we remember that the present is an absolute zero point, and that continuity of thought is possible, therefore, only through memory and anticipation. All our life is future or past, the present gives only the opportunities of guiding the transmutation of future into past.

Memory is in its simplest form only the permanence of the perception,—more or less vivid. When in the form of recollection it becomes the revivification of past perceptions. Finally, in its higher forms of fancy and imagination, it remodels and recombines the perceptions of the past and projects them into the future,—or separates them from actual time and space and throws them into an ideal world.

These powers of memory and imagination, have, in our ordinary school studies been greatly neglected, and cultivated only in their lowest form of memory. Some teachers, it is true, perceiving the poverty of an education which strengthens the memory only, have altogether despised the cultivation of that faculty and endeavored to appeal to the reason alone. But this course is also against nature, it can not be fully carried into effect, because it is an impossibility for the reason to act, except upon transcripts furnished by the imagination from perception. And therefore imagination must be cultivated before reason. Why will we not gracefully bow to the decrees of nature and follow her plans!

In the cultivation of the imagination, it will of course be remembered, that this culture should also in its subdivisions follow a natural order. At first, memory alone, and memory of the actual outward fact,—a description of a thing not now present, but seen and handled and smelled and listened to on a previous day; then memory of words and formula by rote,—then the imagination and description and perhaps drawing of something never seen, but defined and suggested by the teacher. In this play of the imagination all sensible properties must be reproduced; but the chief care should be taken with regard to form, or geometrical figure; by far the most important intellectual element in the material world, simply because the fundamental element. What is matter but that which occupies space;—and what a material object but matter in a definite part of space, therefore having in some sense a form, as its first most essential requisite of existence. Geometry is the foundation of learning and no other learning is possible except as upheld by that foundation.

Geography is the only one of our ordinary school studies which tends directly to the increase of the powers of the imagination. Properly taught it is almost exclusively a work of that faculty. It may degenerate into a mere remembrance of names and figures,—Chicago, 150,000 souls, forty years, Lake Michigan 280 miles by 70. But with a teacher alive to her work, the 150,000 souls, and forty years, will stimulate the pupil to conceive of a city, twice as large, or half as large, as the one with which alone he is familiar, having grown up in his father's lifetime, and the 280 miles by 70, combined with the known figure of the earth, will lead him to imagine the possibility of a steamer running at a good speed, in a straight line, twenty-four hours without seeing land.

The imagination acting freely, and pursuing only its own ends, produces works of fine art, statue, picture, music, poem and tale; and these also in their time and place, are valuable for the education of the power which created them.

Then, in the order of that use, comes the reasoning power, which by a comparison of the truths gained through perception, deduces new truths for the internal vision to seize upon. For the exercise and development of this power of reasoning, we depend at present chiefly upon leading the pupil to study specimens of reasoning in the pure mathematics,—or at a more advanced stage, upon giving him treatises upon logic itself.

It has appeared to me that this method could be greatly improved by giving the pupils at the age of fifteen or sixteen years, when the logical power begins to be developed, some simple explanation of the nature of reasoning, and of the mode of revising proofs, and then giving him unsolved problems for the exercise of his own power in revising original demonstrations. It is manifest that this process need not be confined to mathematics, but can be extended into other branches of natural and metaphysical sciences.

We must not forget that while the intellectual powers guide, the passions alone impel to action. Simultaneous with perception in sensation is feeling. The sensation not only tells you that some external things acts upon your bodily organ, but gives you a feeling of pleasure or of pain. This feeling is something as indefinable, mysterious and ultimate as thought itself,—heat and cold, hunger and thirst, sweetness, sourness, fear, hope, hatred, love, aversion, longing; these words recall to your remembrance past states of your consciousness in which you knew not only the existence of yourself and of some object to which you were in relation, but also of some quality in the object which excited in you a peculiar and indefinable state of feeling.

Feeling accompanies every act of perception, from the simplest sense-perception,—as when I touch this paper and recognize its temperature, texture and surface,—up to the most complex emotions accompanying the perception of the grandest truths of politics, or of theology, the emotions of patriotism and piety.

When these feelings directly arouse strong desire they are called passions. All feeling excites a certain amount of desire or aversion; but some feelings much more than others. Desire and aversion bear to feeling somewhat the same relation that memory and foresight bear to perception. Desire and aversion arise from the recollection of past and the imagination of future feeling. When desire or aversion has a certain relative strength it leads to purpose, which is the first dawning of that greatest spiritual phenomenon, a volition. Desire and purpose are each indefinable and fundamental states; the former being the culmination of feeling, the second the dawning of will. Finally comes volition, the fulfillment of the purpose, the voluntary action.

Inasmuch as these powers are all of them higher, *per se*, than the intellectual powers, it is fitting, if they are capable of education, that their education should be most carefully watched and guarded. To preserve the freshness and tenderness of youth, to keep the heart open for simple and refining pleasures, to guard against the false excitements which exhaust the soul, to foster the pure and holy emotions of filial piety, and draw the heart toward communion with a Heavenly Father, these are grander ends in education than any training of the intellectual powers can be;—and intellectual training is worse than wasted if it be gained at the expense of tenderness of heart and freshness of feeling.

And what else can we say of the importance of training a child in such manner that it may not allow its feelings to be cherished into evil desires, or fail to have its pure feelings awake right desires? What less can we say of the importance of so training the future man that his purposes may all be just and right. And above all, how can we say too much of the need of an education, if such an education be possible, which shall insure the man perfect command over himself, that he may not be infirm of purpose and a tool of others more wicked than himself, but setting himself steadfastly, to do that which is according to God's will, may be an accepted and successful co-worker with the Infinite Power, that ever out of evil is educing good in infinite progression.

What do our schools and academies and colleges effect toward attaining these highest ends of education, this æsthetic develop-

ment of tastes, this moral control of the desires and purposes, this religious sanctification? Much, I grant; and yet nothing in comparison with what shall be done when the highest christian philosophy and culture shall have triumphed in the discovery, and embodiment in practice, of the true system of public education. Much, I grant; and yet very little with a distinct, carefully considered plan of action in reference to these points, very little with the acknowledged end of making these points of more importance than the intellectual development.

I know the practical difficulties which surround the subject. I know the danger lest in attempting to cherish virtue you cherish hypocrisy, in attempting to cultivate morality you produce formality, and in seeking to refine the taste you produce sentimentality. I know the practical difficulties, and have seen the evil results of attempts to render education more moral and more religious.

But I know that similar difficulties have beset also every attempt to improve the intellectual education of the schools. I have seen every improved method of teaching the ordinary branches, so abused by enthusiastic and partially enlightened teachers as to make the improvement worse than the old method. I have seen classes in school, committing to memory and repeating by rote, text-books which were written for the express purpose of forcing the teacher to leave the text-book and take to the subject. And I can not forget that a hundred thousand copies of Peterson's Familiar Science, the most inaccurate school-book I ever saw, have been used in the schools of this country, while Chase's Common School Arithmetic, the best text-book on Arithmetic I ever saw, has nearly gone out of print. Seeing such errors and difficulties in the way of improving modes of intellectual training, and yet seeing that, on the whole, the mode of teaching is improved, I can not be wholly discouraged with regard to æsthetic and moral and religious education.

And now having given a rough sketch of the powers of the human soul;—the power of perceiving truth through outward sense and inward intuition; the power reproducing those perceptions in memory, and combining and modifying them in new creations of the imagination; the power of comparing them with each other, and eliciting new truths through the reason; the power of feeling the impression which these perceptions make upon the soul; the power of allowing those impressions and feelings to awaken desire or disgust, by holding them under attention, or turning the attention from them; the power of cherishing those desires until they ripen into purposes; the power of pushing the purpose into execution through

volition; having given this rough sketch of human powers, I might go on to show that it would afford a correct basis for a scheme of education, and that this scheme of education, carefully developed, would not differ in its intellectual features from that toward which all the sound thinkers of the day are manifestly tending.

But some teachers may ask me, to what practical end is this discourse? and how shall we as individual teachers best fulfil our functions, while waiting for the great thinkers of the profession to perfect the future course of instruction!

I answer that the most directly practical end which I hoped to attain, was to give you a just sense of the grandeur of the work in which you are engaged; and of the importance of tasking your best powers in a calm endeavor to decide for yourselves, what better you can do than you are now doing. The field before each one of you, teachers, if it be but a little Monitou school of a dozen scholars, is worthy of the best efforts you can make. Make those efforts not with feverish anxiety lest you shall not succeed, not with a despairing sense of your inability;—much lest with a self satisfied conceit of your superiority over other teachers;—but make your best efforts to understand and to perform your duties, in the calm confidence that God, who has appointed us our tasks in life, knows best what we can do, and that he asks of us only that we should, with honest sincerity, seek to do our best.

Make your best efforts to understand your duties. The field of knowledge is open to you, as to your scholars, and you can in no way so well stimulate them to learn, and prepare yourself to teach, as by being yourself a student,—enthusiastic in your love of knowledge and your eagerness to gain more. Study what truths are to be taught, study what powers are to be developed, study what duties and opportunities in life will be likely to be opened to your pupils. Study human nature in general, and study the individual character of each pupil under your charge.

Then whatever be the system of instruction which your State Laws or your Educational Board, or your School Committee, may force you to adopt, you can make it flexible and living, and a medium of pouring the sacred life that is in you, into the hearts of your pupils.

NOTE.

The incident with which President HILL introduced his lecture, led to the following Correspondence.

CHICAGO, *August* 13, 1863

MISS ANGELICA M. BUSS,—

Respected Lady:—On the 3d instant a company of gentlemen and ladies, on their way to the annual meeting of the NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, recently held in this city, touched at the North Manitou Island.

During the brief stay of the party, it was the pleasure of some to make your acquaintance, and learn of your work of faith and love among the children of the island.

What we saw and heard deeply impressed us with respect and love for the character of one who, under great embarrassment and self-sacrifice, has isolated herself from loved friends and associations, and devoted the best powers of her mind to the instruction, mental culture, and educational training of the young.

Prompted by a desire to honor you for your devotion to a noble work, and to show our interest in the cause of popular education, the party, with great cheerfulness and unanimity, raised a sum of money with which to purchase an American gold watch, to present to you, as a token of the high regard and respect they have for you and the cause in which you are successfully laboring

Be pleased to accept this testimonial of our esteem, with assurance of sympathy, love, and prayer, for you and your pupils.

With great respect, we are most truly yours,

J. W. BULKLEY, Chairman of the Committee.

REPLY TO THE LETTER.

NORTH MANITOU ISLAND, *August* 25, 1863.

MR. J. W. BULKLEY,—

Kind Sir:—I was very much surprised on the 15th instant by receiving from you a letter expressing kind feeling toward me; also a more substantial token of esteem—a gold watch—the gift of a party of gentlemen and ladies who visited my school.

The magnitude of the gift and the kind expressions contained in your communication have almost made me dumb until the present moment; but I must try and make some acknowledgment for your kindness. And first, permit me to say, you greatly over-estimate my self-sacrifice, for it is indeed a great pleasure for me to instruct the young, and see them improve, mentally, morally, and physically; and what gives me so much satisfaction can not be considered a great hardship.

However, I am greatly pleased to receive your gift, as it is an evidence of your interest in popular instruction and education, the means by which our liberties must be perpetuated. I shall ever keep it by me, and when I look at it shall think of the donors, the occasion of the gift, and the sympathy and generous feelings which prompted you and your associates to such liberality.

I shall be most grateful if I can still have your sympathy and advice; and very glad to hear from you, from time to time, in relation to the cause of popular education, a subject in which we all feel so deep an interest.

Very respectfully yours,

ANGELICA M. BUSS.

VI. OBJECT TEACHING.

BY E. A. SHELDON, OSWEGO, N. Y.

In opening the discussion on this occasion, on what is sometimes technically called "Object Teaching," I propose first very briefly to state the principles upon which the methods thus indicated are based. Secondly to consider some of the difficulties that lie in the way of the progress of these reformed methods of teaching, and the best way of removing them; and lastly consider the true aim and limit of these methods as applied to the development of the early faculties of childhood.

We assume first that education should embrace the united, harmonious development of the *whole being*, the *moral*, the *physical*, and the *intellectual;* and that no one of these should be urged forward to the neglect or at the expense of the other. We likewise assume that there is a natural order in the evolution of the human faculties, and also of appliances for their development, a knowledge of which is essential to the highest success in education; that the perceptive faculties are the first and most strongly developed and upon them are based all future acquirements; that just in proportion as they are quick and accurate in receiving impressions, will all the future processes of education and outgrowing attainments be easy and rapid, and ever prove unfailing sources of delight; and hence they should be the first to receive distinctive and special culture. To this we may add that childhood has certain marked and distinctive characteristics which should never be lost sight of in all our dealings with children. Among the more prominent of these are activity, love of sympathy, and a desire for constant variety. In the natural order of subjects we recognize as first, mathematics, including a consideration of form, size, and number; second, physics, including objects in nature, their sensible qualities and properties, and third, language, including oral and written expression, reading and spelling.

We have thus stated, as concisely as possible, the very first steps in this natural order, upon which must be based all successful educational efforts; for the limited time allotted to this paper reminds

us of the necessity of confining ourselves closely to the point under discussion.

It would be not a little interesting to trace the natural relation of these two orders throughout a complete educational course, nor would it be entirely foreign to our subject; but this would lead us into too broad a field of investigation, and be liable to divert the discussion from the point particularly before us. We will not stop now to consider in detail the method best adapted to the development of the infant faculties, but will advert to them after considering briefly a few of the more prominent obstacles that lie in the way of the most successful progress of these improved methods of teaching. And in this connection we remark first, that the very title by which these methods are popularly designated is open to serious objection. It is true that the term "Object Teaching" is, to a certain extent, suggestive of the real character of these early processes, in that we are continually dealing with tangible objects and illustrations, but it is liable to be taken in a too limited sense. Instead of embracing a large number of subjects, and covering the entire field of the early culture of the faculties, many have taken it to mean nothing more than miscellaneous lessons on objects. These lessons often clumsily given by those who have no knowledge of correct principles, and who therefore continually violate them, have led many to condemn the whole system, and thus in certain quarters to bring it into disrepute.

Again, book speculators are continually making use of the term as a catch word, for the purpose of disposing of their wares; thus imposing upon the uninitiated, and bringing into discredit methods of which these books are the farthest possible from being the representatives. In this way old books have received new title pages, and new books with old methods have been christened with the catch word, "Object Lessons," or "On the Object Plan;" and what is lamentable, multitudes know not the difference between the *name* and the *thing*. In this way much mischief has already been done, and much more is yet to be experienced.

Realizing these objections, some have proposed to change the name, substituting a term more comprehensive and less liable to objection. But this change of names will only subject publishers to an additional expense of new title pages, and will not wholly obviate the evils referred to. Our plan would be to drop all specific names, and speak of all improved, natural or philosophical methods of teaching as such, and let the great effort be to infuse right principles into the minds of teachers, to lead them to study the mental

moral and physical constitution of children, and the best method of bringing this treble nature out in harmonious development. In this lies our only hope of any substantial improvement in educational processes.

This leads me to consider secondly, as a serious obstacle lying in the way of the proposed reformation, the ignorance of teachers upon the points just referred to, and their disposition to study *methods* rather than *principles*. Now, any proper system of education must be based upon philosophical principles, upon a knowledge of the natural order of development of the being to be educated, in his mental, moral and physical constitution, and the corresponding appliances for promoting such growth; and no one can hope for success who does not clearly comprehend these principles. The first effort then on the part of teachers should be to study *principles*, and then the *mode* of applying them. The reverse of this is the course now being pursued in this country. Teachers are endeavoring to imitate models from books, rather than making themselves first familiar with the principles upon which these methods are based, and then using these models as aids in applying them. The only remedy for this evil, as it seems to us, is the establishment of Training Schools for the *professional* education of teachers. Not schools in which the branches are taught, but where the whole aim and effort shall be to impart a *practical* knowledge of the science of education and the art of applying it. In these schools should be exhibited the highest excellence in the art of teaching. There should also be schools of practice where the students shall have abundant opportunity for applying the instruction they receive, and the methods they observe.

Who would think of employing a man who never had any practice in carpentry to build the house he designed as a permanent home for himself and his children, although he might be perfectly familiar with all the books ever written on this subject? We require that our mechanics have not only the rules of their trades, but the practice also, before we presume to employ them, and this too even in the more unimportant arts. They must serve an apprenticeship—a term that implies years of careful observation, study and practice.

They must not only become familiar with all the tools used in their trade, and the exact use to be made of each, but they must also become skilled in using them. And not only must the apprentice know his tools, and know how to use them, before he is entrusted with any important work away from the eye of his master,

but must also have a thorough and exact knowledge of the character and composition of the materials used in his art; their strength, durability, and solidity, that he may know how always to adapt them to the exact place they are to occupy. Without this knowledge the sculptor with a wrong tool, or the wrong use of the right one, a little too heavy a blow of the mallet, or the artist with a wrong pigment, or a wrong stroke of the pencil, may ruin his subject. The mechanic by the omission of a single brace, or the use of a wrong timber, or one composed of weak, perishable material, or by the putting together of materials composed of different powers of contraction and expansion, may ruin his edifice and endanger many lives, or much valuable property. In view of these facts we are all agreed as to the importance of a thorough apprenticeship in all the mechanic arts and trades. In the professions too, in law, medicine, surgery, a special professional education is deemed indispensable. What intelligent person would employ a quack to tamper with his own life or the lives and health of his family, or entrust a case involving large interests in the hands of an unread and unskilled lawyer? Who would entrust the amputation of a limb to the hands of one not conversant with the anatomy of the human frame, or unskilled in the use of the knife? If then so much importance is attached to the careful preparation of the various artizans and men of other professions, for their work, (and no one can say that its importance is over-estimated,) what shall be said of the wickedness and folly of employing both *ignorant* and *unskilled* hands to form and fashion this noblest of all God's creations—the immortal mind! Is it that the mind is less intricate, or of less importance than the body, that we have been in the habit of entrusting its cultivation to the uneducated and untrained? This certainly can not be the reason. The one is like the grass that springeth up in the morning, and in the evening is cut down, while the other is immortal and is freighted with interests of the most momentous character—interests linked with the destinies of mankind for time and for eternity. The human mind is composed of elements the most subtle and complicated, yet capable of being analyzed, and each assigned its appropriate place and function, as also the order and method of its evolution. These faculties do not, like the mineral, grow by accretion, but by their natural use; and ill-timed, or under exercise, or a neglect of the proper use at the proper time, are alike prejudicial; and no one has any right to undertake the work of developing these faculties until he knows something of their real character, their functions, the order in which

they manifest themselves, and the appliances best calculated to develop them and give them strength.

No mistakes can be made here that are not serious in their character. As is a too heavy blow from the mallet, or a wrong use of the pencil, or the use of the wrong material to the statue, the painting or the edifice, so a mistake made here, an undue strain of a faculty yet weak, and but faintly developed, or the neglect of those still in full and active vigor, if not fatal in its consequences, is due only to the recuperative power of the mind to overcome injuries inflicted.

A common error committed in Object Teaching is in converting exercises that should be strictly for development, into instruction in abstract science. Now the aim of all these early lessons should be to quicken the perceptions, and give them accuracy, awaken thought and cultivate language. To this end the senses must be exercised on the sensible qualities and properties of objects; and when the consideration of these objects goes beyond the reach of the senses, then of course, the exercise ceases to be a development exercise, and becomes either an exercise of the memory or of some of the higher faculties. All these early lessons then should be confined to objects, their parts, qualities and properties that come clearly within the reach of the senses of the children, and no generalizations should include any thing more than such objects and their qualities. Definitions should in no case go beyond the mere description of the actual perceptions of the children. These points we regard of vital importance, and that we may be clearly understood, we will be a little more definite, and indicate just where we would begin, and how far we would go in carrying out the leading exercises employed. In the theory we have presented, these should consist of lessons on Form, Size and Number as belonging to mathematics; of lessons on Objects, Animals, Plants, Color, and Place or Geography, as belonging to Natural History, and lessons on language, including oral and written expression, reading and spelling.

And here I trust I shall be pardoned for presenting my views on these points in nearly the words of a report on this subject presented last week at the Annual meeting of the New York State Teachers' Association. In lessons in number the children should be held long and closely to the simple combination of objects, and hence must be confined to numbers that come fairly within the range of the perceptions.

The lessons on Form should be confined to the observation and description of some of the more simple and common forms in na-

ture. Here we must guard against abstractions; the mere memorizing of definitions that go beyond the observations of the children. As we have already said, definitions should be nothing more than mere descriptions, a remark that applies equally to all kindred subjects of instruction. The lessons on Size consist of nothing more than the actual measurement of various objects and distances, and the simple exercise of the judgment in the application of the knowledge thus gained.

In lessons in Color, the children may be led to observe, discriminate and name the leading colors and their tints and shades, and apply them to the description of objects in nature. This will add largely to their stock of language, and greatly aid them in their future lessons. It is worthy of remark just here, that the deficiency in terms to express in our language distinctions in color is one that is deeply felt, and any effort at improvement in this direction should receive our hearty encouragement. Beyond this the children may be indulged in mixing colors, to observe how the various colors are produced from the primaries, and finally their intuitive perceptions of the harmony of colors may be called out. Not that any attempt should be made to teach the scientific law underlying the harmony of colors, but they simply observe that "certain colors look well together."

In lessons on Place or Elementary Geography, the attention of the child is confined to a consideration of that part of the earth which he sees in his daily walks, its physical and industrial features, the various grouping and relation of objects to each other and himself, as a preparation for the consideration of what lies beyond his own immediate neighborhood. In lessons on animals and plants we begin by calling attention to the parts, position, and finally, uses of parts. At the next step, in lessons on animals, the children are led to consider something of characteristics and habits, and *finally* of adaptation of parts to habits. The children are continually exercised in close and accurate observation, by means of specimens or pictures, and to a limited extent from given or tangible facts and phenomena, to draw conclusions, thus calling forth the, as yet, feeble powers of reason. In some of these later lessons some little knowledge of the natural history of the animals considered, is also imparted. All these lessons are given on the more familiar quadrupeds and birds, either those inhabiting the immediate neighborhood, or of which they have been made acquainted by information. Some attention has also been given by the teacher to the order in which these lessons have been presented, grouping together, or rather giv-

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ing in succession, lessons belonging to the same class or order. Thus far, however, the children have no realizing sense of any such design. After having gone over in this way with a few of the leading types of each order of mammals, they are led to associate in natural groups or orders the animals that have constituted the subjects of these lessons, aided by the knowledge they have acquired of their characteristic parts and habits. These systematic lessons, however, are confined to mammals and birds, as being more familiar to the children. For variety an occasional lesson may be given on a fish, an insect, a reptile, or a shell, those somewhat familiar to the children, but a large proportion of the animals belonging to these and the lower subdivisions of the animal kingdom are farther removed from the child's immediate sphere of observation, and therefore the basis of the classification is less apparent.

In "Lessons on Objects" proper, as distinct from "Lessons on Animals and Plants," the first lessons should be on objects of the most familiar character, and for a long time their attention should only be called to the simple parts and their position. This involves no use of difficult terms, but at the same time cultivates observation and the power of accurate expression. At the next step some of the more simple and common qualities are added. At a further step more occult qualities, requiring more close and careful observation, and such as are brought out by experiment, may be introduced; also, to a limited extent, the adaptation of qualities, material or structure, to use, may be considered. At a still more advanced stage, some information in regard to the objects considered may be brought in, as also a *simple classification* of the objects and qualities considered. In connection with all these lessons, the cultivation of language should be made one of the leading points; commencing with the simplest oral expressions, leading on to written reproductions, and finally to consecutive narrative.

This leads us directly to a consideration of *language*, the subject next in order. It was a favorite maxim of Pestalozzi, that "The *first* object in education must be to lead a child to *observe with accuracy;* the *second*, to *express with correctness* the result of his observations." Again, "*ideas first*, and language afterward." That there is a natural connection between thought and speech, observation and expression, there can be no reasonable doubt. Who has not observed that children always seek a name for every new object of discovery, and are never satisfied until they receive it? It is, in fact, out of this necessity of our nature, that language has grown up, expanded and enlarged, to keep pace with the growth of

ideas. Bacon has well said, "Men believe their reason to be lord over their words; but it often happens too, that words exercise a reciprocal and reactionary power over our intellect. Words, as a Tartar's bow, shoot back upon the understanding of the wisest, and mightily entangle and pervert the judgment."

Again, of what practical advantage would be the careful cultivation of observation, without a corresponding power of expression? Ideas unuttered are valueless to all but their possessor, but well expressed, they are a power to move the world. Like the ripple started on the surface of the placid lake, their influence is felt to the remotest shores of time. Now as observation is cultivated by careful and constant use, so is language by the frequent expression of ideas. But how is the child to acquire this power of language, or what is the process and order of this acquisition? This is an interesting question, and deserves an intelligent answer. Here, as in everything else, we must go back to nature, if we would make no mistakes. Observe then the child in his first utterances. His first efforts at speech are to articulate the names of those persons, objects and actions, bearing the most immediate relation to his desires and necessities; the names of pa and ma, the articles of food and drink, the different members of the household, and familiar objects about him. Next in order come action-words.

Neither name nor action-words are as yet qualified, but these quality words follow slowly along.

The third step is reached before the time of school life begins. However, when the transfer is made from the nursery to the school-room, this vocabulary must be enlarged to keep pace with the growth of ideas. Observing then the order already indicated, we begin with the names of objects, the wholes and their parts. Next come the names of the properties and qualities of objects, proceeding, of course, from the most simple to the more difficult. But is it asked to what extent are these terms to be given? We answer most unhesitatingly, *just so far as the child feels the necessity for their use, and has the power to apply them.* But it is objected that "The use of words can not be long kept up or remembered by the children, that are above the current language of the circle in which they move."

We can say with that assurance that springs from careful observation and experience, that they are governed quite as much in the application of these terms, and consequently in their familiarity with them, by the necessity they experience for their use in the description of objects about them, and in the expression of their per-

ceptions, as by the language of the home circle, or immediate associates. To this may be added the fact that for five hours in the day, and five days in the week, and this for several successive years, they live in the atmosphere of the school-room, where these terms are "current language," and the children from the humblest homes readily incorporate them into their own dialect. Were not these *facts*, there would be poor encouragement for the teacher to labor to improve the diction, manners or morals of the poorer classes.

The success of every good school located in such unfortunate neighborhood, in elevating the children in all these points, is sufficient to substantiate this position. On what other principle can we account for the elevation of successive generations and races of men above their immediate ancestors? And how else can we account for the growth of language? We must depend upon the school to exert a refining, civilizing influence, and that too above and beyond the immediate "circle in which they move." Now in the language of the masses of the people there is a great dearth of terms descriptive of the properties and qualities of objects. How and where is this defect to be remedied? We answer emphatically, by the *cultivation of language in the schools.* We have already stated that language as the expression of ideas, bears an important relation to their development and growth, and therefore that the two should be carried on contemporaneously. We should, therefore, as we proceed with the exercises in developing ideas, give the terms expressive of those ideas, always using, however, those terms which are most simple, and at the same time expressive of the perceptions to be indicated. In all these exercises reference should be had to the mental status of the children; never giving any more than can be readily comprehended and appropriated. In these and all other school exercises, the answers of the children should be incorporated into full and complete expressions. As they advance they will take pleasure in reproducing their object lessons on their slates. This should always be encouraged, and should become a daily and regular exercise. Where this course is pursued the children will early acquire the power of easy and elegant diction, and readiness in composition.

The subject of reading is one surrounded with many difficulties. These, it is the business of the teacher to so divide and classify as to present but one difficulty at a time, and make the successive steps easy and pleasurable to the child. The difficulties that meet the young learner at the very threshold, are the number of different sounds represented by the same character, the number of different characters representing the same sound, the representation of the

same sound sometimes by one character and sometimes by another, and sometimes by a combination of characters, and the frequent use of silent letters. To obviate these difficulties he should not for a long time be confused with more than a single form to a single sound. With twenty-three characters and the same number of sounds a large amount of reading matter, consisting of easy simple words, may be given. It is better to commence with the small forms of the letters, as they are better adapted for general use. When the children become familiar with these, the capitals may be introduced. Gradually new sounds may be brought in, and with them new words. A few words may be learned as words, to enable us to fill up the reading matter. In connection with the Object Lessons, also, new words are being continually learned. By this process, in which the children are able to help themselves at every step of their progress, they ever find fresh delight. By a simple plan of classification, in which words of like anomalies are brought together, and which the children at first dictate themselves, the work of spelling is made one of the most pleasing, and animated exercises in the school-room. These words are both spelled orally and written upon the slate. The plan we have suggested, of which we have been able only to give the merest outline, we have found a very rapid and thorough one in teaching children to read and spell, and in its details strictly Pestalozzian.

We have thus briefly alluded to a few of the leading exercises, and the extent to which they should be employed in the development of the early faculties of childhood, that our position may be definitely understood, and for the reason that we believe them liable to much abuse.

CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION

TO THE MILITARY ACADEMY AT WEST POINT.

BY HENRY BARNARD.

EXPLANATORY NOTE.

THE following note to the Secretary of the NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, will explain the form in which the author's extempore Lecture, at Chicago, appears in the printed Proceedings of that meeting.

"In response to your note, communicating the Resolution of the National Teachers' Association, requesting me to reduce to writing the several propositions advocated by me as conditions for admission to our National Military School, that they may be entered in the Journal of the Proceedings, and also your request in behalf of the Committee on Printing, for a copy of my Address for publication with the other Lectures, I reply: Since addressing the Association at Chicago, I have improved every opportunity to speak on the same topics, in conversation, and public gatherings, as vital to the popularity and well being of the Academy, and of the highest importance to the military service, and the educational interests of the country. Not having preserved the few memoranda from which I spoke, it is impossible now to reproduce the address delivered at Chicago, as distinct from other utterances on the subject. The substance, however, of that and other addresses by me, will be found in that portion of the Report of the Visitors, invited by the Secretary of War to attend the Annual Examination of the Cadet Corps at West Point, in June 1863, devoted to this subject, and in which it was made my duty to embody the general conclusions of the Board. That portion of the Report has been printed by me, with the permission of the Secretary, in advance of its publication by Congress, in the "*American Journal of Education.*" If you wish, under these circumstances to include this document as containing the substance of my address, in your published Proceedings, I will furnish printed copies of the same, without charge to the Association, and will include some additional Tables, and an extract from a letter of Col. Thayer, under whose administration as Superintendent the Military Academy at West Point took its distinctive character, and who has been from the start an advocate of admission on the ground of the personal merit of the candidates ascertained by open competitive examination. There is no higher authority on this subject than Col. Sylvanus Thayer, and if the teachers of the country continue to agitate this matter, they will witness the change, and feel its influence in themselves and their pupils, as well as in the increased efficiency of the military service."

ADMISSION OF CADETS.

In concluding the report of their inspection of this, the only national military school, to which the country naturally looks for the organization and command of her armies, and the construction of her works of defense, the Visitors would respectfully urge on the consideration of the Department, an immediate and thorough revision of the law and regulations relating to the admission of Cadets—the number, the qualifications required, and the mode of ascertaining these qualifications, and of making the appointments. No matter how appropriate may be the location, how complete the buildings and equipment, and how skillful and faithful the teachers, unless there is a constant and sufficient supply of pupils of the right age, character, bodily and mental vigor and aptitude, as well as aspirations for a military career, the public will be disappointed in the practical workings of the institution.

1. The number of pupils in the Military Academy is determined by the law, which limits the Cadet Corps of the United States Army to one cadet for each Congressional District in the several States, one for each Territory, one for the District of Columbia, and to forty more, whom the President may appoint, ten each year, from the country at large, without reference to their residence. Under this law, if each Congressional District and Territory were represented, the whole number of cadets would be two hundred and eighty, but owing to vacancies by withdrawal or non-appointment in Congressional Districts in the States involved in the rebellion, the number at this time is reduced to less than two hundred—and the graduating class of 1863, to twenty-five—a number altogether inadequate for the regular army in time of peace, and much below the present and future exigences of the service, while the expense of the Academy remains the same. We are assured by the Superintendent that without any additional expense for building and material equipment, and with a small advance in the pay of pupils and assistant teachers, the Cadet Corps could be increased to four hundred. The Visitors are unanimously of the opinion that the corps should be at once increased to this number, and should be maintained at this maximum at all times, by authorizing the President to appoint to any vacancy which may remain unfilled for three months by reason of nullification, secession, rebellion, or any other cause. If the appointments to fill and maintain the Corps at this maximum, can be selected out of the many American youths, ambitious to serve their country in the army, on the plan of an open competi

tive examination in the several States, the Visitors believe that ninety out of every one hundred thus appointed will go through the whole course with honor, and the average ability, scholarship, and good conduct of the whole corps, will equal that now reached by the first ten of each class.

2. By the original law providing for the appointment of cadets to the corps of Artillerists and Engineers, and by the act of 1812, by which the Military Academy was made to consist of the Corps of Engineers, the candidates for cadets were to be "not under the age of fourteen, nor above the age of twenty-one years." By regulations of the Department the minimum age is fixed at sixteen years, and the Visitors believe that the interests of the Academy and the military service, will be promoted by making the legal age for admission between eighteen and twenty-one years. The four years preceding and including eighteen are peculiarly the formative period of the body, mind, and character, and should be devoted to the acquisition of right habits of study and general culture, as the proper foundation for all special and professional training, which should not be commenced until the constitution is consolidated, the taste for a pursuit is distinctly pronounced, and the moral character is naturally developed under the influences and supervision of home. The experience of Europe, and particularly of France and England, has led to the abandonment of juvenile military schools, as nurseries for officers; and the very common practice of nominating candidates who exceed the legal age, expresses the convictions of our own people that military studies now require more maturity of mind than was deemed necessary in the early history of the Academy. The present want of uniformity as to age and mental discipline explains in part, the wide disparity of attainments between members of the same class. With few brilliant exceptions, confined to cadets of rare aptitude and vigor of mind, the most solid practical education is obtained by those who come to West Point when at least eighteen years of age, with at least a good preparation in English studies, and a taste for mathematical and military pursuits.

3. The school attainments required by law of candidates for admission to the Military Academy, are as rudimentary and limited as our language can express—far below, we are assured, the requisitions of any similar school in the world. Prior to 1812, when the Academy was little more than a school of mathematics, taught by two professors, in the line of geometrical and algebraical demonstrations, and the practical exercises were confined to surveying, and the simplest forms of military construction, the candidates were not

subjected to any examination. The act of 1812, provides that "each candidate previously to his appointment, shall be well versed in reading, writing, and arithmetic," and by regulations of the department, the knowledge of arithmetic is restricted to only a portion of that science. There were special reasons at the start for thus limiting the amount of knowledge, when the minimum age of admission was fixed at fourteen years, and the Academy was properly a juvenile military school, like all cadet schools in Europe at that time. At that date, science entered far less than now into the art of war, as applied to the means and modes of attack as well as of defense. Besides, the opportunities of even elementary instruction were then far less widely or equally distributed through all the States than now, when the general government has set apart over sixty million acres of the best land in aid of primary schools in all the new States, and nearly every State legislature has subjected the entire property of their several communities to taxation for the support of public instruction. Now that the requirement as to age has been advanced from the fourteenth to the sixteenth year, and by the voluntary action of parties having the nomination, or seeking the appointment, to the eighteenth year, we see no reason why the school attainments corresponding to, and compatible with that age, should not be also required. The least that should be demanded of any candidate is that amount of general culture and attainments, which constitutes a good English education, and which it is now the aim of the public schools, and their boast, to give without partiality, to all, poor and rich alike, if the advantages they proffer are properly improved. And we see no injustice in fixing the standard of general attainments and culture as high as that now reached by cadets in good standing at the close of their first year in this Academy, including even an elementary knowledge of one modern language. If the French, or Spanish, or German language is to be mastered by American officers for the sake of the military science and literature which it embodies, or its uses in conversation, or official duty, called for by the exigences of our foreign relations, both in peace and war, its acquisition should be begun as early in life as possible, while the organs of speech are flexible, and the grammatical and etymological difficulties of a new language are more readily surmounted. Judging from the results of the examinations we have witnessed here, and what we know of the attainments made by students in colleges elsewhere, very few persons, who begin the study of modern languages, late in their school life, in the pressure of other studies, ever attain the mastery of even one, so as to be able to use it as an instrument of written or spoken com-

munication, or make its treasures of science and literature a familiar possession.

Whatever may be thought of the disciplinary and practical value of earlier and longer attention to one or more modern languages, to those, whose minds will otherwise be almost exclusively subjected to the peculiar training of the mathematics, there can be no doubt that young men who have reached the age of eighteen, and desire to profit by the special studies of a purely military school, should exhibit in their language, habits, and attainments that intellectual, moral, and esthetical culture, which the public or private schools of any State can, and should give to any youth of average ability of that age.

4. Low as the requirements for admission now are, from a defective and vicious mode, as we believe, of selecting candidates, and making appointments to the Cadet Corps, the number of candidates nominated and provisionally appointed, who present themselves at West Point and shrink from any examination, or who fail to pass even the entrance examination which is confined to reading a few passages of familiar English prose or verse, and writing a few sentences from dictation, and performing on the blackboard a few operations of the most elementary character in arithmetic,—or being admitted, are not able to gain or keep a respectable standing for one year, although the studies of the first year belong to a general, and not a military education,—or by a "special providence," manage just to escape dismission from incompetency, and graduate,—is disgracefully large. The country abounds in youth, competent to master and profit by the course of instruction here provided, and ambitious of enjoying these privileges of education, and opportunities of distinction; and a selection by lot from the juvenile population of any state, could not result in so few prizes, and such a dreary waste of blanks as have been realized from the appointments made, in the necessary absence of all personal knowledge of the candidates by the appointing power, on the recommendation, or nomination of one or more persons in each Congressional District, in no way responsible for the incompetency of the individuals named.

From official tables prepared from the records of the Academy,* it appears that the proportion of all who graduate, to all appointed in successive periods of ten years, is as follows:

For Ten Years,	from	1802	to 1811, ...	0.606
" "	"	1812	to 1821, ...	0.289
" "	"	1822	to 1831, ...	0.377
" "	"	1832	to 1841, ...	0.472
" "	"	1842	to 1851, ...	0.510
" "	"	1852	to 1861, ...	0.523

* See Boynton's "History of Military Academy at West Point," p. 293.

From official returns furnished by the Superintendent, a portion of which are hereto appended, (B. C.) it appears that out of 4626 who have been admitted to the Corps of Cadets, (including two hundred now members,) only 2020 were able to graduate, and of those who failed, (2398, excluding those who remain,) more than three-fifths broke down in the first year in studies which in almost every military and scientific school in Europe are required for admission. Out of the whole number regularly nominated, recommended, and provisionally appointed from 1841 to 1863, more than twenty per cent. failed to pass the examination, as to health and constitution, or the slight examination in reading, writing, and cipher-ing. And this proportion would be increased by the number who withdrew in advance from the consciousness of their unfitness for a position to which ambitious and influential friends had promoted them. Out of the whole number admitted from 1851 to 1862, more than one-third failed during their first year. The proportion of graduates to the whole number admitted is 46 per cent. and of those who failed to graduate, 54 per cent.

The Visitors are unanimously of opinion that in a matter of such vital importance as the right organization and command of the armies of the United States, on which the honor and safety of the whole country depend, the original appointment to the Cadet Corps which is the *first step* in promotion to such command, as well as to all the special duties which attach to the engineer service, should not be made in any case except on the principle of finding the best youth for the place— having the health, character, vigor of body, maturity and aptitude of mind, and preparatory knowledge, to profit by the opportunities of the special military training provided by the government for this corps, and a decided taste and expressed desire for a military career. And to this end, the law and regulations should provide for the rigorous exclusion in advance of all who can not present testimonials from the teachers under whose instruction they have been for the two years next previous, that in their opinion they possess the qualifications above specified, and who do not make a written declaration of their desire to enter the Corps for the purpose of qualifying themselves to labor in the military service of the government, to which they will bear true allegiance against all enemies foreign and domestic, and over all state and local authority, government and constitution whatever. To select the best out of any number who may present their testimonials and written declarations, public examination should be held of all applicants at such times and places as the

law should prescribe, by such persons and under such regulations as the Department shall be authorized to appoint; and the results of such examination of each person examined, and in each subject specified by law, should be returned to the Department, in which return the applicants should be arranged in the order of merit. From this merit roll, revised from year to year, all appointments to the Cadet Corps should be made, and in the order of merit as assigned by the examiners.

This principle of appointment and promotion by merit which we advocate, is in full and successful operation in the classification and advancement of cadets in the Academy itself, and the country will be satisfied if the same principle can be as fairly and rigorously enforced on all who aspire to enter, as well as on all promotions in the service after leaving the institution. The principle itself, of selection by merit, either in the mode of public examination, or of careful and searching inquiry by competent and impartial educators, designated for this purpose by the parties to whom custom and not law had assigned the grave responsibility of nominating candidates, has been voluntarily applied in several Congressional Districts. Not a cadet known to have been thus selected and appointed, has ever broken down from want of vigor of body or mind, or failed to reach and maintain an honorable position on the merit roll of the Academy; and to this careful selection by those who felt the responsibility of the privilege accorded to them, is the country indebted for its most eminent and useful officers.

To the objection that selection by public competitive examination, will involve expense, we reply, that any expense which will do away with the prejudices against the Academy, which the present system of patronage has done so much directly and indirectly to evoke and foster, and which will, at the same time, exclude incompetent, and secure the services of vigorous, talented, well trained officers, for every arm of the service, will be well incurred. But, in our opinion, there will be no more expense in selecting and educating a given number of cadets on this plan, than on the present. The two thousand cadets who were appointed by patronage and failed to graduate, cost the government, directly and indirectly each year, a much larger sum than it would have taken to have excluded them in advance from the institution by competitive examination, and filling their places by better men; and their exclusion by substituting better material, would have been an incalculable gain to the Academy, facilitating its discipline, increasing the value of its instruction, and giving to the army a larger number of competent officers.

The objection, that the mode of making all appointments by open competitive examination, will deprive the President, and members of Congress of the opportunity of appointing the sons of meritorious officers, or poor, and it may be, orphan boys of genius—is more plausible than real. That such appointments have been made, to the manifest advantage of the country, is certain. But we know not a single instance of such marked success, on the part of a cadet thus appointed, as to attract investigation, where the same youth would not have secured the appointment in open competition. But if he had failed, and the place had been filled by one better qualified, the country would have been no loser, and he would have suffered no injustice or neglect. We fear, from an abuse of this amiable motive of rewarding meritorious parents, and assisting the poor, that in some instances, weak, ignorant, and incompetent persons are appointed, as though this Academy were a public charity school, or home for orphans; and not a special school for military instruction and training, for which the great object, in any mode of appointment, is to select those who will profit most by its advantages, and do the country the greatest service after being thus educated at its expense.

To the objections that, in these examinations, "the most forward boys will have the best chance, and such boys seldom make the best men," and that no amount of book knowledge can give assurance of the great military genius, "which must be born and not made," we reply, that these objections apply just as forcibly to any plan of nomination, and to every system of instruction. But we believe that those examinations can be and will be so conducted as to distinguish what is precocious from what is the healthy development of the faculties, what is solid from what is showy in attainments, what is vigor, grasp and aptitude of mind from what is mere memory and quickness, in competing candidates. All of these candidates must bring the testimonials of their former teachers, as to their character, ability and attainments, must have reached the age of eighteen years, and will be called upon to exhibit orally as well as in writing their knowledge and opinions on subjects which require judgment, reflection, presence of mind and decision. If a young man of eighteen and upward shows that he has done well what he had undertaken to do thus far in life, that he has preserved a sound constitution in vigorous health, has mastered the studies appropriate to his age, is honest, diligent, thoughtful, teachable, courageous, courteous, and ambitious of excellence generally, then the country has every assurance which can be given that on this basis of character, talents, attainments, and application, a solid fabric of military

education can be reared, and that in the hour of trial he will show not only courage to dare, but competence to devise, influence and command. In the responsibilities of such an hour will be found the fruitage of all his previous promise and preparation.

To the objection—"that a competitive examination must always result in the success of the best instructed, wholly irrespective of the capacity of the competing candidates; and the plan will thus secure for the country the services of dull mediocrity well instructed, and exclude genius without opportunities of development,"—we reply, that this does occur now under the present system, but need not, and never has been the result of competitive examination properly conducted. The examination which we propose to have inaugurated, is not to search simply or mainly for the results of memory or diligence, but for "vigor and aptitude of mind" in reference to the special purposes of this Academy. The examination will be poorly conducted, and will operate here widely differently than elsewhere, if it does not only exclude in advance palpable incompetency, and ascertain beyond doubt the possession by all the successful candidates, of that knowledge which is the basis of a special military training, but also seek, and give credit in the result, for the quick eye, the firm set mouth, the vigor and elasticity of body, the rapid decision, the contempt of danger, the competency to influence and command—and all the other marks of the incipient soldier and officer, as well as the mathematical tastes and qualities of mind which indicate the successful engineer. Composed as every Examination Commission might be, of at least one experienced officer of the United States Army, of one member (past or present,) of the Academic Board, of one officer of the State Militia, as well as one or more experts in educational matters, the military qualities of body, character and mind, will be sought for as well as the mere results of memory, diligence and good opportunities of instruction, in the competing candidates.

To the objection, that candidates will make special preparation, and in the phraseology of the class-room, "cram for the occasion," we reply,—to such preparation and cramming as cover the whole ground of a good English education, we can see no possible objection; the more of it, the better. If the preparation is only crude and on the surface, we are sure that the ploughshare of interrogation requiring precise answers, oral and written, will very soon expose its superficial and undigested character.

To the sifting out and selection by open competition, might be added a period of probation for the successful candidates—making

their first year's connection with the academy a further test of capacity, preparation, and aptitude for a military career. No pains and no expense should be spared to exclude from the academy and the service, incompetent, indifferent, and unteachable cadets and officers; such men are "cumberers of the ground," and no influence and inertia should be potent enough to resist the inevitable working of the principle of open competition, applied at frequent intervals, and at every stage of promotion, in getting rid of such cadets and officers.

The fact that such a public examination is to be held from year to to year, and that the educational privileges of this Academy, and immediate and prospective promotion in the army are the prizes which await success, will, in five years call forth more latent genius in the obscure corners and poor families of a State, than has ever been sought out by the lantern of patronage, (which is now seldom carried beyond the family, or neighborhood, or party of the person having the nomination,) since the foundation of the Academy. With the network of public and elementary schools, woven by state legislation over all the land—with public schools of a higher grade, and special schools of science and the arts already established, at short intervals, or which will be called into existence by the demand for a higher and different preparation from that now given, it may be safely said, that no genius, likely to attract the attention of a member of Congress, will exist, which will not be developed under the same influences by which the "dull mediocrity" of the rest of the community will be educated. Once set in the path of instruction and development, real genius will assert its own claims to attention, and will, on a first or second trial, before any board of examiners, make its vigor, courage, and persistence felt. The result will be the same in this institution, as in every really good Public High School and Free Academy—all classes as to wealth, occupation, religious and political affinities will be represented,—provided the regulations are judicious, and the examination practical and impartial.

This is the experience of the competitive principle in France ever since it was inaugurated by Carnot in the Polytechnic School at Paris, and Napoleon extended its application to every public special school, and to promotion in every department of administration, civil as well as military. And where is there more general administrative ability, central and local? Where are abler or better trained officers, military and civil, to be found? Where does "well instructed mediocrity," no matter how well backed up by wealth, find less favor, or genius for organization and command, no matter how poor or unfriended, find such speedy and sure recognition?

The experience of England in the trial of the two principles of patronage and competitive examination for admission, not only to the military and naval schools, but to the East India and the Civil service generally, is instructive, and especially on the points which we are now considering. Prior to the Crimean war, (which exposed the utter incompetency of a large number of officers, who had obtained their military education and promotion by patronage and purchase,)—admission to the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, was by nomination, and the age fixed by law, was fourteen years.

The Secretary of War was satisfied by personal inquiry in 1855, that nothing could do so much to narrow and cramp the full development of a boy's mind, as his long confinement from so early an age among lads having the same limited attainments, special studies, and destination;—that a majority of those admitted on nomination and through influential friends, had only the minimum qualifications specified by law;—that to most cadets the severer studies were irksome and imperfectly mastered, on account of immaturity of mind and imperfect preparation;—that the certainty of promotion by influence and purchase, after obtaining the diploma of the Academy, and not unfrequently without it, took away all stimulus for continued study;—that resignations were common, when the profession of arms ceased to be a pastime, or could be exchanged for something that paid better—and the service was incumbered by officers without large and trained capacity for command, although not deficient in courage and dash. Under these circumstances the Secretary of War, advanced the minimum age of candidates from fourteen to eighteen years, removed all the general studies of the Academy into the preparatory course, and opened the doors of admission to those only, who could prove their title to enter by personal merit, in a free competitive examination. The same principle was applied to appointments and promotion in the new regiments called for by the exigences of the great war in which England found herself engaged.

Subjects, time, and places of examination, were officially made known throughout the kingdom, and commissions to conduct the examinations were appointed, composed of men of good common sense, military officers, and eminent practical teachers and educators. The results as stated in a debate in Parliament, five years later, on extending this principle to all public schools, and to all appointments and promotions in every department of the public service, were as follows:—In the competitive examinations for admission to the Royal Military Academy, candidates from all classes

of society appeared—sons of merchants, attorneys, clergymen, mechanics, and noblemen, and among the successful competitors, every class was represented. Among the number was the son of a mechanic in the arsenal at Woolwich, and the son of an earl, who was at the time a Cabinet Minister—the graduates of National Schools, and the students of Eton, and other great Public Schools. The most successful candidates were between the ages of eighteen and nineteen, as is found to be the case in competitions for admission to the Polytechnic School of France. Out of 579 successful candidates for the latter, between 1854 and 1857, 450 were over eighteen years. But the most important result of the competitive examinations for Woolwich, was the superior mental ability, the vigorous health, and eagerness for study exhibited by the new classes, and the small number who have failed on account of ill-health or incompetency. On this point, Mr. Edward Chadwick, in a Report before the National Social Science Association, at Cambridge, in 1862, says:—

"Out of an average three hundred patronage appointed cadets at the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, for officers of engineers and the artillery, during the five years preceding the adoption of the principle of open competition for admission to the Academy, there were fifty, who were after long and indulgent trial, and with a due regard to influential parents and patrons, dismissed for hopeless incapacity for the service of those scientific corps. During the five subsequent years, which have been years of the open competition principle, there has not been one dismissed for incapacity. Moreover, the general standard of capacity has been advanced. An eminent professor of this university who has taught as well under the patronage as under the competitive system at that Academy, declares that the quality of mind of the average of the cadets, has been improved by the competition, so much so, that he considers that the present average quality of mind of the cadets there,—though the sorts of attainment are different, has been brought up to the average of the first classmen of this (Cambridge) university, which of itself is a great gain. Another result, the opposite to that which was confidently predicted, by the opponents to the principle, has been that the average physical power or bodily strength, instead of being diminished, is advanced beyond the average of their predecessors."

The opening of the Royal Military School at Woolwich to competition, on the basis of a more advanced age, and more thorough general education, has not only drawn in pupils of higher average ability and attainments, but has enabled the authorities to extend

the course of instruction. In this, the only safe way, they solved the problem which has tortured the ingenuity of the friends of our Academy—of crowding new studies acknowledged to be desirable if not indispensable, into a course already too crowded for cadets so unequally, and, many of them, so imperfectly prepared for the course as it is.

Another result of immense importance to the educational interests of Great Britain has followed the introduction of these open competitive examinations for appointments to the Military and Naval Schools, to the East India service, as well as to fill vacancies in the principal clerkships in the War, Admiralty, Ordnance and Home Departments of the government:—a stimulus of the most healthy and powerful kind, worth more than millions of pecuniary endowment, has been given to all the great schools of the country, including the universities of England, Scotland and Ireland. As soon as it was known that candidates, graduates of Trinity College, Dublin, had succeeded over competitors from Oxford and Edinburgh in obtaining valuable appointments in the East India service—the professors in the latter universities began to look to their laurels. As soon as it was known to the master of any important school, that some of his leading pupils might compete in these examinations, and that his own reputation as a teacher depended in a measure on the success or failure of these pupils, he had a new motive to impart the most vigorous and thorough training to his whole school.

The success of candidates who had never seen the inside of a government Military School, in open competition for appointments to the Artillery and Engineer Corps, in the new regiments raised in 1855, over those who hold the diplomas of the Royal Military Academy, was one of the reasons which led to a thorough revision of the whole system of military education.

These results, imperfectly presented here, will, the Visitors believe, be realized from the changes, which they now suggest, in the requirements as to age, attainments, capacity and aptitude, and especially in the mode of ascertaining these qualifications, of candidates for appointments to the Cadet Corps of the United States Army.

To the present low requirements, and mode of selecting cadets, do they attribute the hostility which they know exists, to some extent, against this Academy, in different parts of the country. The charges of personal, and political favoritism in making nominations, and the absence of reasonable search, among all the youth of a district, for the best qualified in natural endowments and acquired

knowledge irrespective of the poverty, or wealth, or occupation, or family, or party relations of the parents or guardians, we are forced to believe, in too many instances, to be well founded. To these hasty and injudicious nominations, do we attribute the bitter disappointments of so many individuals and families caused by the numerous failures to pass the almost formal entrance examinations in reading, spelling, penmanship, and elementary operations of arithmetic, or if admitted, to maintain a respectable standing in conduct and studies during their first year's connection with the institution. To this inequality of preparation and maturity of mind on entrance, do we attribute the astonishing disparity of capacity and attainments in the members of the same class, and the very large proportion of all who are admitted, who fail to graduate in very high standing as men of science or military promise.

To this want of preparatory knowledge, maturity of mind, and taste for mathematical and military studies, do we attribute most of the difficulties of internal administration, and class-room instruction. So long as the cadet is a boy, or if full grown in body, a youth with only boyish tastes, and without scholarly and soldierly aspirations,—so long as not a few are in the Academy, not because they sought its privileges from an inward and irrepressible impulse to a military career, but for the eclat of a military position to be resigned when such position involves sacrifices; *so long* will the admission of each new class, and especially, the period of encampment be signalized not only by boyish pranks, but by personal outrages on unoffending members of the same corps, which we had supposed to belong to the dark ages of collegiate institutions, when boyish inmates were congregated in large numbers away from the restraints of family discipline;—so long will the time, skill, and patience of able professors, which should be devoted to the elucidation of difficult scientific principles and their applications to military art, be engrossed in supplying the defects of an elementary education, which should have been obtained by the cadet as well, or better, at home; so long will the severe mathematical studies, and their special applications, difficult enough to task a well disciplined mind even with the preparation provided in a thorough knowledge of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry,—be irksome in the extreme, and be never mastered to any useful purpose to the army of the United States, by more than one half of the graduates of the Academy;—so long will the country be disappointed in the subsequent career of many graduates, for whose military instruction and training all these appropriate and costly preparations have been made.

In view of these and other considerations the Board of Visitors unanimously recommend that the law and regulations relating to the military academy be so modified as to provide as follows:

I. The Cadet Corps of the army of the United States shall consist of four hundred members, to which each state and territory shall be entitled to a number equal to its representation in the Congress of the United States, and the remainder shall be designated by the President from the country at large, including the District of Columbia; and he shall also fill, in the same way, any vacancy which for any cause may remain unfilled, for three months after the annual examination in each year.

II. No person shall be appointed to the cadet corps until he has been found qualified in the particulars designated by law, after a public examination conducted in such places, at such times, and in such manner as Congress shall prescribe; from which examination no person resident of that portion of the country for which the same is held, shall be excluded, who shall present credentials from the teacher or teachers whom he had last attended, that he is over seventeen, and under twenty-one years of age, of unblemished moral character, and personal habits, of good physical strength and constitution, and has given evidence of aptitude and vigor of mind for the studies and duties of a military career. The examiners shall make return under oath to the Secretary of War, of the persons so presenting themselves, examined, and found qualified, arranged in the order of merit, specifying the residence and school or schools which they have attended in the two years previous, and the degree of merit exhibited in each subject of the examination. And all appointments to fill vacancies for any state or territory, or for the country at large, shall be made from these returns, and in the order of merit as assigned by the examiners, until the same shall be revised by new regulations of the Department.

III. No person shall be returned to the Secretary of War as a suitable candidate for admission to the Cadet Corps, unless he

1. Shall be *over* seventeen, and under twenty-one years of age.

2. Shall possess an unblemished moral character and correct personal habits.

3. Shall be in good health, and in no way incapacitated by want of vigor and elasticity of physical constitution for military service.

4. Shall possess vigor and aptitude of mind for the studies of the Military Academy, and shall give evidence, oral and written, of a good English education, which, in view of the wide spread facilities of instruction in public and private schools, might very properly embrace

(*a.*) The correct use of the English language, in speaking, reading, and writing the same.

(*b.*) Penmanship, book-keeping, and elementary drawing.

(*c.*) The ability to perform with facility and accuracy the various operations of arithmetic.

(*d.*) The elementary principles of algebra and geometry.

(*e.*) A thorough knowledge of American geography and history, and the leading features of the Constitution of the United States, and of the State of his residence.

(*f.*) Or so much of the subjects above specified as shall be deemed indispensable to the immediate and profitable attention of the Cadets on their admission to the special studies and occupations of a military school.

5. Shall make a written declaration of his desire to obtain admission to the Cadet Corps for the purpose of qualifying himself for the military service of the United States, which service he assumes from the date of his appointment as cadet, to continue in the same for a period of at least sixteen years—bearing true faith and allegiance to the Constitution and government of the United States, against all enemies, foreign and domestic, and paramount to all obligations to any State government, authority, or constitution.

APPENDIX.

The Appendix to the Report of the Visitors of the Military Academy for 1863, contains the following tables and documents referred to in the Report.

TABLE A.—Showing the condition in life of the parents of the Cadets of the United States Military Academy from 1842 to 1863 inclusive.

TABLE B.—Showing the number of Cadets actually admitted into the United States Military Academy from each State and Territory from its origin March 16th, 1802, to October 19th, 1863.

TABLE C.—Showing the number of Cadets who have graduated at the Military Academy, from its origin to 1863, with the State and Territories where appointed.

TABLE D.—Showing the whole number of Cadets admitted and the whole number graduated from each State and Territory from 1802 to October 1863, together with the percentage of those who graduated, and of who failed, out of the whole number admitted from each State, and the number of Cadets to which each State and Territory is now entitled, according to the apportionment of members of Congress, under the Census of 1860.

STATEMENT E.—Exhibiting the conditions and examination for the Polytechnic School of France, together with reference to similar regulations for other Military Schools.

TABLES. A. B. and C., were furnished by Capt. Edward C. Boynton, Adjutant of the Military Academy, and were prepared by him originally for his "*History of West Point, and the United States Military Academy,*" published by Van Nostrand, New York, 1863, 408 pages.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE CONDITION IN LIFE OF THE PARENTS OF THE CADETS OF THE U. S. MILITARY ACADEMY AT WEST POINT, NEW YORK, FOR THE LAST TWENTY-TWO YEARS, FROM 1842 TO 1863, INCLUSIVE.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	1847	1848	1849	1850	1851	1852	1853	1854	1855	1856	1857	1858	1859	1860	1861	1862	1863
Fathers are or were farmers or planters	59	61	61	68	72	67	69	75	70	63	67	58	66	62	60	52	48	57	65	29	33	33
Fathers are or were mechanics	14	12	15	22	22	25	22	21	16	14	14	13	12	17	26	22	15	30	12	13	8	12
Fathers are or were judges or lawyers	27	25	30	35	33	30	29	23	34	33	34	33	36	26	25	29	32	32	36	23	35	39
Fathers are or were merchants	18	15	23	37	29	29	31	33	36	35	35	35	39	40	30	26	41	26	28	23	24	29
Fathers are or were boarding-house or hotel keepers	5	2	4	3	7	6	4	2	2	2	3	3	5	2	2	1			3	4	4	5
Fathers are or were physicians	12	15	15	13	21	19	21	21	18	14	14	13	9	8	9	17	16	10	18	10	13	13
Fathers are or were in the army, navy, or marine corps	14	16	16	13	11	13	17	17	18	22	24	27	28	22	20	20	26	29	33	23	25	33
Fathers are or were clergymen	4	6	6	6	5	3	3	4	4	4	3	5	4	6	5	4	5	6	7	7	8	11
Fathers are or were in the civil employment of the General or State government	5	15	16	9	5	2	3	7	7	8	10	11	14	13	13	7	31	29	13	9	11	14
Miscellaneous: as, bank officers, editors, professors, masters of vessels, &c.	15	11	15	23	35	36	41	24	32	39	30	26	14	25	13	13	12	6	37	44	39	42
Occupation not stated, or no occupation	43	34	23	17	1	2	2	8	7	11	13	7	10	19	15	20	25	39	22	13	18	19
Total	221	212	234	236	241	232	242	240	244	239	247	232	237	239	223	221	251	266	279	202	218	260
Of these numbers, there are without fathers living	26	57	44	48	43	41	34	43	40	45	36	35	29	33	33	24	46	33	43	25	25	36
Without fathers or mothers living	22	16	18	15	21	20	18	16	26	17	19	17	15	9	6	7	7	8	10	11	9	7
Total orphans	48	73	62	63	63	61	52	64	66	62	55	52	44	42	39	31	53	41	53	36	34	43
Of these numbers the parents are stated to be in moderate circumstances		156	150	164	192	182	193	208	215	207	218	205	206	215	196	195	216	218	289	184	199	223
Of these numbers the parents are stated to be in reduced circumstances	182	26	26	36	35	38	40	29	25	16	9	5	6	7	6	8	8	7	6	2	5	5
Of these numbers the parents are stated to be in indigent circumstances		6	8	8	8	8	4	4	2	2		1	1	1	1	1	1				1	5
Of these numbers the parents are stated to be in independent circumstances		6	10	12	6	4	5	4	2	14	20	22	22	16	18	17	26	41	34	16	12	17
Of these numbers the parents are stated to be in unknown circumstances	39	18	19	16																	1	1
Total	221	212	234	236	241	232	242	240	244	239	247	232	237	239	223	221	251	266	279	202	218	260

NOTE.—Of the 97 Cadets admitted, to October 19th, 1863, as given in the table on page 321, 46 were appointed from the U. S. Volunteers engaged in the War, who held the following rank: 1 *Captain*, 5 *First Lieutenants*, 8 *Second Lieutenants*, 10 *Non-commissioned Officers*, 20 *Privates*, 1 *Musician*, and 6 *Clerks*, from military departments.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CADETS ACTUALLY ADMITTED INTO THE UNITED STATES MILITARY ACADEMY FROM ITS ORIGIN, MARCH 16TH, 1802, TO OCTOBER 19TH, 1863.

Year of Admission.	Maine.	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	Virginia.	West Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Alabama.	Mississippi.	Louisiana.	Ohio.	Kentucky.	Tennessee.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Arkansas.	Michigan.	Florida.	Texas.	Iowa.	Wisconsin.	California.	Minnesota.	Oregon.	New Mexico.	Utah.	Washington.	Nebraska.	Kansas.	Dakota.	Colorado.	Nevada.	Dist. of Columbia.	At Large.	Unknown.	Total.
1802				5		1	1					1																																		10
1803																																														9
1804				3			1	1	1			1		1																																9
1805				1			2		2		1																																			9
1806				8						1																																				17
1807				5		1	2	2			1	2																																		11
1808				5			4																																							19
1809		1		8		2	2	1			1	2				1																													4	
1810				3			1		2																																					9
1811															1																															1
1812				1		1	8		1																																					12
1813		1		11			1					5											1																							19
1814			1	4		1	48				2	22										1	1																						80	
1815				1			14		1		4	5										1	2																						28	
1816						1	1		1		1	6										1	2																						13	
1817		1		8		1	6	2	1		1	6										1	2																						29	
1818				8		1	22		1		8	11										1	3																						56	
1819		4		4		1	11	2	1		2	4										1	3																						34	
1820		3		5		1	9	1	1		3	8										1	3																						36	
1821				1		1	6	1	1		2	5										1	3																						22	
1822		3		5		1	10	1	1		1	4										1	3																						30	
1823		3		6		1	16	2	1		1	7										1	3																						42	
1824		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1825		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1826		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1827		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1828		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1829		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1830		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1831		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1832		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1833		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	
1834		3		6		1	18	2	2		1	7										1	3																						45	

Year of Admission.	Maine.	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	Virginia.	West Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Alabama.	Mississippi.	Louisiana.	Ohio.	Kentucky.	Tennessee.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Arkansas.	Michigan.	Florida.	Texas.	Iowa.	Wisconsin.	California.	Minnesota.	Oregon.	New Mexico.	Utah.	Washington.	Nebraska.	Kansas.	Dakota.	Colorado.	Nevada.	Dist. of Columbia.	At Large.	Unknown.	Total
1835.	5	1	2	4	:	1	18	1	10	:	3	1	:	4	3	:	1	:	2	5	1	4	3	1	1	:	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	4	:	:	74
1836.	4	4	1	5	3	3	19	8	8	1	4	10	:	5	5	5	3	:	1	6	5	5	6	1	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	:	97
1837.	1	1	2	2	1	3	17	3	18	1	3	14	:	4	6	6	3	:	2	7	1	6	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	4	1	2	117
1838.	1	1	3	2	1	3	9	3	6	1	3	10	:	1	3	6	3	:	1	5	1	6	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	111
1839.	4	2	2	2	2	2	12	1	7	1	2	5	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	76
1840.	4	2	2	2	2	2	16	1	7	1	2	6	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	84
1841.	2	2	1	2	1	2	12	1	11	1	2	10	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	114
1842.	2	2	1	2	1	2	12	1	11	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	109
1843.	1	2	1	2	1	2	12	1	11	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	109
1844.	2	2	1	2	1	2	12	1	11	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	109
1845.	2	2	1	2	1	2	12	1	11	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	109
1846.	2	2	1	2	1	2	14	1	10	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	109
1847.	2	2	1	2	1	2	10	1	8	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	107
1848.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1849.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1850.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1851.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1852.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1853.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1854.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1855.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1856.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1857.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1858.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1859.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1860.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1861.	2	2	1	2	1	2	11	1	7	1	2	9	:	1	4	5	3	:	1	6	1	5	6	1	1	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	3	1	2	105
1862.	1	1	:	1	:	1	8	:	5	:	1	7	:	:	1	3	1	:	:	2	:	2	2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1	:	:	51
1863.	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	97
Total	109	78	104	293	42	102	650	101	494	41	179	879	1	190	189	88	61	67	948	196	178	100	81	67	17	38	20	11	14	17	10	6	8	5	3	2	2	2	1	1	118	380	26	4,626		

NOTE.—Owing to the destruction of the records by fire in 1888, the States in which some of the Cadets resided previous to that event is given; though it is believed they were appointed "At Large." The President of the United States having determined late in August, 1863, to fill all the existing vacancies from the seceded States there were in the FOURTH CLASS, numbering 97, on the 19th of October, 48 thus appointed. 10 Cadets similarly appointed had not, on that date, been examined for admission into the Military Academy.

C.

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT EXHIBITS THE ACTUAL NUMBER OF CADETS WHO HAVE GRADUATED AT THE MILITARY ACADEMY, FROM ITS ORIGIN TO THE PRESENT DATE, WITH THE STATES AND TERRITORIES WHENCE APPOINTED.

Year of Graduation	Maine.	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Alabama.	Mississippi.	Louisiana.	Ohio.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Kentucky.	Tennessee.	Arkansas.	Missouri.	Michigan.	Wisconsin.	Dist. of Columbia.	Florida.	At Large.	Iowa.	Texas.	Utah Territory.	Minnesota.	Washington Ter.	Oregon.	New Mexico Ter.	California.	Nebraska Ter.	Aggregate.	
1802	1			1			1				1																													3	
1806			1									1																													3
1804		1		1									1																												4
1805			1				1		1					1																											5
1806			2	1		1	2		1																															8	
1807			2	1			1			1																1														6	
1808		2	2	1			1				1																													7	
1809			2	1			2				1																													6	
1810		1	2	1		1	2		1		1																													9	
1811		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1812		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1813			2	1			2		1		1																													7	
1814		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1815		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1816		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1817		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1818		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1819		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1820		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1821		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1822		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1823		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1824		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1825		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1826		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1827		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1828		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1829		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1830		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1831		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1832		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1833		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1834		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1835		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1836		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1837		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1838		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1839		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
1840		1	2	1			2		1		1																													8	
Aggregate.	3	33	33	33	16	15	49	3	19	3	19	3	19	19	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	

CADETS WHO HAVE GRADUATED AT THE MILITARY ACADEMY.

Year of Graduation.	Maine.	N. Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Alabama.	Mississippi.	Louisiana.	Ohio.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Kentucky.	Tennessee.	Arkansas.	Missouri.	Michigan.	Wisconsin.	Dist. Columbia.	Florida.	At Large.	Iowa.	Texas.	Utah Territory.	Minnesota.	Washing'n T'r'y	Oregon.	N. Mexico Ter.	California.	Nebraska Ter.	Aggregate.
1861	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1862	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1863	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1864	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1865	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1866	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1867	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1868	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1869	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1840	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1841	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1842	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1843	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1844	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1845	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1846	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1847	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1848	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1849	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1850	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1851	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1852	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1853	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1854	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1855	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1856	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1857	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1858	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1859	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1860	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1861	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1862	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1863	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1864	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1865	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1866	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1867	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1868	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total.....	54	47	75	131	90	55	329	51	197	18	79	143	63	59	44	36	14	15	118	48	30	38	54	5	24	17	7	50	6	180	6	8	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1

TABLE D.

EXHIBITING THE WHOLE NUMBER OF CADETS ADMITTED TO THE MILITARY ACADEMY FROM EACH STATE AND TERRITORY, AND THE WHOLE NUMBER GRADUATED.

STATE AND TERRITORY.	Admitted.		Graduated.			Fail'd to Graduate.		Remain.		No. on fail'd list.
	From	Total.	From	Total.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	No.	Per ct.	
Alabama,	1817	88	1822	26	.295	61	.693	1	.012	7
Arkansas,	1827	17	1841	5	.294		.705	...		2
California,	1850	10	1862	1	.100	6	.600	3	.300	3
Connecticut,	1802	102	1805	55	.539	43	.422	4	.039	4
Delaware,	1806	41	1808	18	.439	22	.539	1	.022	1
Florida,	1822	20	1826	6	.300	14	.700	...		1
Georgia,	1813	139	1815	44	.329	95	.670	...		3
Illinois,	1815	81	1819	30	.370	42	.519	9	.111	13
Indiana,	1812	109	1814	48	.440	52	.477	9	.083	11
Iowa,	1839	14	1843	6	.428	6	.428	2	.144	6
Kansas,	1855	3				2	.667	1	.333	1
Kentucky,	1813	196	1819	83	.423	105	.531	8	.046	9
Louisiana,	1817	67	1819	15	.223	51	.761	1	.016	4
Maine,	1808	102	1811	54	.529	43	.422	5	.049	5
Maryland,	1802	179	1802	79	.441	95	.537	5	.022	5
Massachusetts,	1802	232	1802	131	.324	91	.392	10	.043	10
Michigan,	1814	38	1823	17	.447	18	.474	3	.079	6
Minnesota,	1850	6	1859	2	.333	2	.333	2	.333	2
Mississippi,	1819	51	1823	14	.274	37	.725	...		5
Missouri,	1802	67	1806	24	.358	37	.552	6	.090	9
New Hampshire,	1817	78	1808	47	.602	28	.359	3	.039	3
New Jersey,	1803	101	1806	51	.504	45	.446	5	.050	5
New York,	1802	650	1803	329	.506	289	.444	32	.050	31
North Carolina,	1803	190	1805	63	.331	127	.668	...		8
Ohio,	1813	243	1815	118	.485	105	.432	20	.083	19
Oregon,	1854	3	1861	1	.333	1	.333	1	.333	1
Pennsylvania,	1804	424	1806	197	.464	203	.479	24	.057	24
Rhode Island,	1814	42	1817	20	.476	20	.476	2	.048	2
South Carolina,	1809	159	1806	59	.371	100	.628	...		6
Tennessee,	1815	178	1820	56	.314	122	.686	...		10
Texas,	1840	11	1853	3	.272	8	.727	...		2
Vermont,	1803	104	1804	75	.721	26	.250	3	.029	3
Virginia,	1802	379	1803	142	.374	237	.615	4	.011	13
West Virginia,	1863	1						1	1.000	1
Wisconsin,	1837	17	1848	7	.411	7	.412	3	.177	6
Dist. of Columbia,	1806	113	1811	50	.443	62	.549	1	.008	1
New Mexico,	1852	5	1861	1	.200	3	.600	1	.200	1
Utah,	1853	3	1858	1	.333	1	.333	1	.333	1
Washington,	1855	2	1861	2	.100			1	.500	1
Nebraska,	1858	2	1862	1	.500			1	1.000	1
Dakota,	1861	1						1	1.000	1
Colorado,	1863	1						1	1.000	1
Nevada,	1863	1						1	1.000	1
At large,	1837	330		139	.421	156	.473	35	.106	40
Unknown,	1803	26						...		...
Total,		4,626		2,020				210		294

The Totals in the column of Cadets admitted, graduated, and failed to graduate, for each State and Territory, and for the country at large, are obtained from Tables prepared by Capt. Boynton, in his "History of the United States Military Academy." The per centage of graduates, failures, &c., is calculated from the totals thus obtained. The minute accuracy of the results is slightly effected by the difficulty of assigning the twenty-six Cadets admitted, whose place of residence was unknown, to their respective States. The column of Cadets to which each State and Territory is entitled in the apportionment of members of Congress under the Census of 1860, is official so far as States not involved in rebellion are concerned; the latter is given according to the Census of 1850.

OPINIONS OF COL. THAYER AND OTHERS.

On the recommendations of the Board of Visitors as to the conditions of admission to the United States Military Academy at West Point.

EXTRACT from a letter of COL. SYLVANUS THAYER, Superintendent of the United States Military Academy, from 1816 to 1831.

"The Extracts from the Report of the Visitors at West Point, for 1863, I have read with the highest satisfaction, not to say admiration. The subject of the admission of Cadets, their number, age, attainments, and mode of appointment, is discussed in the most complete and able manner, *ne laissant rien a desirer*, as far as I can see. I am naturally the more pleased from finding my own views so perfectly reflected in many important particulars. The only difference I notice is the small addition to my standard of attainment for admission. I not only agree to that, but would raise the standard as high as Congress would be willing to adopt. The higher the standard, the more perfect will be the test of capacity. The subject, as you may well suppose, is not a new one with me. More than forty years ago I made my first effort to have the mode of appointment by nomination, done away with, and admission by open competition adopted. My last effort before the late one, was made in 1858, while I was in command of the Corps of Engineers, during the absence of Gen. Totten. At the same time, I recommended a higher standard of attainment, a Board of Improvement, and some of the other changes comprised in my "Propositions," but with little expectation, however, that my solitary voice would be heeded. After long despairing, I am now encouraged and cheered. Admission by competitive examination, open to all, may not be attained as soon as we wish, but come it must at no distant day. Let every future Board of Visitors recall the attention of the Government to your excellent Report; no new arguments are needed, and let all the publications devoted to the cause of education, agitate the question unceasingly.

We have been favored with the perusal of the "Propositions," referred to in Col. Thayer's letter, and submitted by him to the Secretary of War, in 1863, with "Suggestions for the Improvement of the United States Military Academy." So far as the Visitors go, their views, and those of Col. Thayer, are almost identical, but Col. Thayer's communication to the Secretary includes many other suggestions relating to the instruction, discipline, and administration of the institution, which we hope will be adopted by the Secretary, and embodied in the Regulations.

In addition to the modifications suggested by Col. Thayer, we should like to see the theoretical course at West Point reduced to two years; and Special Courses, or Schools of Application and Practice

established for the Engineer, Artillery, Cavalry, and Infantry service, open only to those who should show natural aptitude, and the proper amount of acquired knowledge, whether graduates of the scientific course of West Point, or any State scientific or classical school, in a competitive examination. In each of these courses or schools, there should be a graduation, and promotion, in the particular service, according to merit. Our whole system of military instruction should terminate in a STAFF SCHOOL, open only to those who, in addition to the knowledge required for graduation in at least two of the above special courses, should have had at least three years actual experience in service. While members of the Staff School, these candidates for the Staff Corps, should, if called for by the State authorities, assist without compensation, in conducting Military Encampments of the Officers of the State Militia, like those held every year in Switzerland, and corresponding to what is known in this country to Teacher's Institutes. The graduates of the Staff School, should constitute the Staff Corps, from which all vacancies in the higher offices of the Regular Army should be filled, and all appointments to new regiments be made.

EXTRACT from a letter of GEN. H. K. OLIVER.

I have read with the utmost care, the Extract from the Report of the Board of Examiners of the Military Academy at West Point, for the year 1868, and most heartily concur in the views therein set forth, and especially in that portion of it, which recommends a competitive examination of candidates for admission. In all its relations it is right. In fact it stands out prominently as the only proper mode of admittance.

My intimate acquaintance with the Academy, having attended the examination in 1846, by invitation, and again in 1847, as Secretary of the Board of Visitors for that year, enables me to speak with reasonable authority. These visits afforded me opportunities, which I improved to the utmost, and most minutely, to become intimately well informed of the effect of the prevailing method of selection, and of its practical results upon character and scholarship after admission, as well as to know, with what degree of fidelity, the institution was answering the intent of its founding, and the just expectation of the country; and I was then satisfied, and subsequent observation has confirmed me in my opinion, that whatever of deficiency prevailed, was traceable to the method of admission. Faithful teachers and faithful teaching will achieve great results, but they can not make good, incompetent natural endowments, nor infuse vigor and life into sluggish natures. I sincerely hope that the Government will feel the force of your views, and comply with your most commendable recommendations.

RESOLUTION adopted by the American Institute of Instruction at the Annual Meeting in August, 1863.

WHEREAS, the security and honor of the whole country require in the military and naval service the right sort of men with the right sort of knowledge and training; *and whereas*, the military and naval schools established to impart this knowledge and training will fail in their objects, unless young men are selected as students, of the right age, with suitable preparatory knowledge, with vigor of body, and aptitude of mind, for the special studies of such schools; *and whereas*, the mode of determining the qualifications and selecting the students, may be made to test the thoroughness of the elementary education given in the several States, therefor

Resolved, That the Directors of the American Institute of Instruction are authorized and instructed to memorialize the Congress of the United States, to revise the terms and mode of admission to the National Military and Naval Schools, so as to invite young men of the right spirit, and with vigor and aptitude of mind for mathematical and military studies, who aspire to serve their country in the military and naval service, to compete in open trial before intelligent and impartial examiners in each State, without fear or favor, without reference to the wealth, or poverty, or occupation, or political opinions of their parents or guardians, for such admission, and that in all cases the order of admission shall be according to the personal merits and fitness of the candidate."

X. STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

CIRCULAR.

THE undersigned will devote as large a portion of each number of the "*American Journal of Education*," for 1864 and 1865, as shall be found necessary, to a minutely accurate, but condensed, account of the *State Teachers' Association*, or in the absence of any distinctly professional organization, of any State Educational Association, and in the absence of any such State organization, of any similar County or City Association—for each of the United States. For this purpose, he will be happy to receive communications from the President, or Secretary, or from a committee who may be instructed to furnish the same by any Association, covering the following particulars.

I. Any historical data respecting any Educational Association, prior to the organization of the present State Association.

II. The establishment, including the date, names of the original movers, the Constitution, or Articles of Association, and the first officers, of the present Association.

III. The officers, place and time of each regular meeting, the Subject of each Lecture, Written Report, or Paper read at each meeting, with the name, residence, and professional designation of author, with the Subjects of discussion, and Resolutions relating to schools and education—for each year.

IV. List of any printed documents issued at the expense, or under the auspices of the Association.

V. List of members, with the name of the institution, or educational office, with which they are connected, and their Post Office Address, who attended the last (one or two) regular meetings of the Association, held before the date of the sketch.

To give personal interest to these historical summaries of the doings of the several State Associations, the editor will be happy to insert brief biographical notes of the educational activity of the teachers, whom their associates have selected to preside over and engineer their movements, together with the portraits of the same—so far as reliable data for such sketches, and the portraits shall be furnished.

Copies of the signature, or sheet containing the Historical and Biographical Sketches, with the Portrait, if any, will be furnished, *when ordered in advance*, at the mere expense of press work and paper—and the number of the Journal in which the same is printed, will be supplied to the Associations, or the members, at half the usual price of a number.

HENRY BARNARD,
Editor of the American Journal of Education.

HARTFORD, CONN.

P. S. The first of these series of Sketches will appear in the number for June, 1864.


UNIVERSITY



J. L. Pickard



A. Pichard

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THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 10.]

No. XXXV.—JUNE, 1864.

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I. ARISTOTLE AND HIS EDUCATIONAL VIEWS.

MEMOIR.

ARISTOTLE, as a thinker, writer, and an actor, belongs as legitimately to the history of pedagogy as to the annals of philosophy; and teachers should claim *him* among the most celebrated and brightest names of their profession, to whom king Philip could write on the birth of his son Alexander—"know that a son is born to me, and that I am thankful to the gods, not so much for the birth of a boy, as that he is born in your times. Trained up by you, I am in hopes that he will become worthy of me and of succeeding me upon the throne." He was born B. C., 384, at Stagira, near Chalcidice, the most populous part of northern Greece. His father was Nikomachus, physician and friend of the Macedonian king, Amyntas II. At the death, apparently early, of his parents, he had the good fortune to come under the care of Proxenus, a faithful guardian, and careful for his bringing up. In return, Aristotle erected statues, as marks of gratitude, to him, his wife, and parents; and afterward adopted and educated his son.

At the age of seventeen, Aristotle was attracted to Athens, then the center of civilization, chiefly by the fame of Plato. Here he devoted himself for twenty years to the study of philosophy, although he apparently continued his favorite physical and chemical studies. His persevering labor, and the zeal with which he studied the works of past and present philosophers so highly recommended him to Plato that he surnamed him "The Philosopher of Truth," and the soul of his school; and used to call his house the house of the reader, from his indefatigable researches into all possible philosophical writings. He used to say "Xenocrates needs spurs, Aristotle reins." The variance which after a time sprang up between Plato and Aristotle may have originated in radical difference of character. Perhaps Aristotle, as is reported, gave too much attention to his person; or perhaps, according to the ideas of the other philosopher, was too much a man of the world, he was too early in life seeking to pursue his various departments of investigation, and

to gather together a treasure of experience. At an early age he wrote four books on proverbs, which were an important contribution to the world's wisdom. By such studies he prepared himself more directly for the education of a prince, but raised up some opposition here and there. He soon gathered a small circle of youths and men around him, to whom he delivered lectures; and perhaps it was this which aroused the jealousy of Plato.

After Aristotle had ended his supervision of Alexander's education, and the latter had departed to the conquest of Asia, he returned to Athens, and selected there as his place of abode and instruction the Lyceum, so called from the neighboring temple of Apollo Lyceus, and consisting of a gymnasium surrounded with avenues of trees, where he lectured. His scholars were named Peripatetics from the avenues (περιπατοί;) or, as the ancients believed, from Aristotle's own habit of teaching while he walked (περιπατεῖν;) it is uncertain which, though the last seems most probable. He lectured twice a day; in the morning upon more profound subjects of nature and dialectics, of which he was preëminently master, and in the afternoon upon exoteric subjects, and those easy of comprehension. To the former, none were admitted without a previous examination of their knowledge and fitness; while to the latter, young men were admitted without any special selection. He seems usually to have employed the erotematic-dialectic method by question and answer; employing such disputations as were according to his views, a good exercise of the mind.

Besides these lectures and this practical labor, Aristotle published, during his thirteen years' stay in Athens, most of his writings; in part by the assistance of his great pupil. In the general commotions which followed Alexander's death, and particularly at Athens, against the friends of the Macedonians, he fled from Athens to Chalcis, B. C., 322, and there continued his teaching until his death in the same year. His place at the Lyceum was filled by his pupil, the head of the Peripatetic school, the Lesbian Theophrastus; whom he had likened to the lively Lesbian wine.

We proceed to give some account of Aristotle's

EDUCATIONAL VIEWS.

The highest object of the art of education is, to train men.

MAN.

Man, although, besides, the most highly endowed of all beings, is distinguished from beasts, with whom he shares animal life, and from plants, with whom and beasts he shares a vegetating life, not

only by the endowment of reason, while they are controlled by their passions, and by the power of distinct recollection, while they have only a dim kind of memory, but especially by speech, which enables them to express their desires and dislikes. Of all living beings he alone possesses perceptions of good and evil, of right and wrong, and the power of expressing them by articulate speech. Thus follows the possibility of society; of the family and of the state; bonds of union amongst men based upon needs other than those of mere nature.

The state, the completest of all forms of association, which includes all the others within it, and which by itself sufficient to secure happiness in life, is likewise founded in nature; man being by nature a political being, and destined to live in a civil organization. Whoever lives within no state, is, by nature and not by accident, either a miserable or a superhuman being; either a beast or a God.

DESTINY OF MAN.

It was a general opinion among the Greeks that every citizen should propose to himself some object for which to lead a good life; whether honor, fame, wealth or intellectual training; and that his occupations should all have reference to this. Three courses of life were usually distinguished; the pleasure-seeking, devoted to enjoyment; the political, to virtue; and the philosophic, to knowledge. While the first is in a certain sense animal, and the second purely human, the third lifts us above the narrow limits of human life. All the various activities of men include and are based upon one idea; namely, that of happiness, as being the highest object of life; and they are all distinguished by approximations to single excellences, instead of by the absolute, which alone is truly worth seeking and which will present the highest object of human attainment, namely, sufficiency to one's self. Happiness, which consists in successful activity during life, exerted with the appropriate helps, is based upon virtue; which signifies the correct selection of the mean between two evils of opposite character; one of them ever passing the line of a just moderation, and the other not reaching it. A virtuous course of life is not based upon certain predetermined principles, but consists in that which is found to be good, and to increase happiness. The best life is therefore the happiest; and the practice of virtue is always a grave and difficult path.*

Other external means of happiness, according to Aristotle, good

* We must not omit at this place to refer to a discourse delivered by Dr. Neander, March 2, 1843, before the Berlin Academy of Sciences, "On the relations between the Aristotelian and Christian Morals."

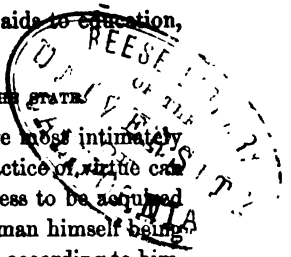
in substance, and the lack of which detracts from it, are these; noble birth, strength, greatness, educated faculties, beauty of body, (especially important according to Greek ideas, as betokening beauty of mind,) and many and well-trained children, both boys and girls. Friendship and love are also needful, even more in prosperity than in adversity; since man is adapted not to himself alone, but to a greater community; and therefore to sympathy with joy and sorrow. With the practice of virtue and happiness, pleasure is closely connected; not merely as an exterior adjunct, either; but allowable pleasure is not only no hindrance to good, but a help; and an effort after it is an effort after good.

The pleasure connected with any thing does not interfere with earnestness or discretion in relation to it, as when one occupies himself in inconsistent matters, but is inseparable from life, and gives a higher direction to all human efforts, so that every branch of human knowledge is benefited by it. The pleasure of investigating and learning is a cause of deeper investigation and greater learning. Young children, on the contrary, and beasts, seek external and isolated pleasures.

The unreasoning effort after good which is seen in young children, appears first; but to the possession of moral virtue, or to a virtuous life, consciousness is necessary; which depends upon the full development of the reason. Upon the harmony between the reason and the instinct depends the progress in good; so that neither a beast nor a child can practice real virtue; nor every man, but he only in whom the proper qualities of body and mind exist and have been educated; that is, who is emphatically a man, (Ritter, Geschichte der Philosophie, III. 298—301.) While Socrates taught that virtue may be learned, and therefore depends upon abstract theories, Aristotle maintained the doctrine that to learn it, practice is necessary; that education in good morals, under laws and by early good training must precede, if instruction in the same is successfully to follow. Moral virtue depends upon practice, and therefore upon knowledge; so that knowledge precedes the full attainment of virtue. According to Socrates, moral life was a consequence of mental perception, and therefore depended entirely upon instruction and doctrine. Aristotle's teaching, however, was that virtue is an activity, and is to be acquired only by practice; that it is more securely possessed than knowledge; not liable to be forgotten; a quality of the soul acquired by a long course of exertion, and intrepid and persevering practice.

In order to a consistent life according to the precepts of morality,

the exertion of all the faculties is needed; and it is likewise important that youth should be trained to it from as early an age as possible. Indeed, all depends upon this, since it is only by means of completing many virtuous actions that we are to arrive at virtue itself. Aristotle elsewhere names three especial aids to education, namely, endowment, practice, and instruction.



NECESSITY OF HUMAN ASSOCIATION; *i. e.*, OF THE STATE.

As Aristotle teaches that politics and ethics are most intimately connected, so according to him the completest practice of virtue can only be within and by the state; neither is happiness to be acquired alone, but only within the state; even the natural man himself being a political being. All knowledge and power have, according to him, only one purpose, namely, the good. The more excellent such knowledge or power is, the more excellent the good at which it aims; and the most excellent is, the political. The completest virtue depends upon the fullest knowledge; and this, in the state, is first acquired through education and instruction, and afterward under good laws, which improve the citizens by assisting them in acquiring intelligence and penetration.

The office of the state is not merely to satisfy material needs; it has a higher and moral duty; that is, to render the citizen good and obedient to the laws, and thus to lead him to a life of happiness. The number of citizens is not too small, so long as their free development is not hindered, and their necessities are well satisfied; nor too large, as long as it is difficult to omit them from their regular situation and calling in the community. That is the happiest life which preserves a man, arriving at most only to moderate possessions; since wealth inclines to sloth and insubordination, as may be seen by the case of the children of the wealthy, who are not accustomed to obey teachers in their youth. Want, on the other hand, induces a debased and servile spirit; and moreover, the feeling of union is strongest between those of like condition. Still, Plato's scheme of community of goods should not be introduced, much less the community of wives and children. Such an equality as that would destroy freedom and discretion in intercourse with others, and would result in sloth and carelessness; for every man cares more for himself than for his neighbor, and for his own property, than for that of the community. The idea of the family, and of the state, too, and all freedom and independence whatever, would in like manner disappear. Property, on the other hand, should be vested in individuals, while by cultivating the good feelings of the citizens,

its use would be common to all. In short, a common interest and unity in the state should be attained, not by the violent means advocated by Plato, which are philanthropic only in appearance, but by means of a right education; which tends to destroy selfishness and to promote public spirit and the love of others. Children and wives should be trained with reference to the state; since both the one and the other are means of happiness and enjoyment.

Aristotle states three pure species of national constitution; monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy. He prefers the first two; not for the reasons commonly given by the great minds of antiquity, but from a conviction based upon a profound acquaintance with practical relations of life, "that it is impracticable to train all the citizens in all the virtues; and that they must of necessity be led toward the better, and made obedient even against their wills." For this reason he prefers the systems of aristocracy and monarchy, which are according to him closely related; not absolutely pure, but with so much participation in the government by the many as may keep them interested in the common welfare, and prevent disturbances and enmities from arising within the state.

The most important means for the permanence of the state, though up to the present time scarcely considered, is, an education in conformity to the laws and the constitution; so that the children shall grow up into good citizens, adapted to the peculiarities of their constitution. In the aristocracy which is really Aristotle's favorite scheme, the education of all the citizens is so arranged that they learn first to obey and then to command; so that the first is the business of the young, and the latter of the old. But where, as in an oligarchy, a limited class of citizens, or as in a monarchy, a single family, governs, there the education of the governing persons must be different from that of their subjects. The son of a king, for instance, should receive especial instruction in riding and in the art of war.

DIFFERENCES AMONGST MEN, BY NATURE AND OTHERWISE.

But from the same education, under like circumstances, arise different virtues; differing according to natural endowments, as appears in the case of men, women, children, and slaves. The slave has reason, but not enough to take care of himself; the woman an unstable one; the child an immature one. Manly virtue has thus a character of command, womanly of serving. Virtues, however, do not differ chiefly according to differences of condition or sex, but to distinctions of mental endowment in individuals.

The Aristotelian psychology distinguishes a reasoning and an unreasoning part of the human soul. To the former, besides the merely animal and vegetative life, belong the appetites, and passions, as anger, &c. Our effort must therefore be to bring the unreasoning part into subjection and obedience to the reasoning, which takes cognizance not only of permanently fixed principles, but of things mutable and transitory. Hence, a distinction between moral virtues, such as moderation and courage, and intellectual virtues, such as wisdom, knowledge. The sensibilities must therefore be regulated by the reason, and thus the passions and instincts be governed and directed. The practical understanding flows from this harmony between thinking and willing; so that its action is directed toward error or truth, theoretically speaking, by the determinations of the perceptions and passions. The moral virtues are not born within us, nor are they repugnant to our nature, since in that case we could not become accustomed to them; but we possess certain capacities in relation to them; and the attainment of them is the result of practice, as that of the intellectual virtues is of instruction.

The general idea of virtue is further divisible into various subordinate species; as for example, bravery in war, which, however, should not be an object for its own sake, as amongst the Spartans, but only for the sake of peace; wisdom, for philosophic pursuits or for leisure; prudence, for living in mutual relations with others; and justice as the peculiar virtue of a state—for both Aristotle and Plato represent the state by the analogy of a man.

Only the most completely developed men in the state can attain the highest rank; and such an one must above all things not be a slave. The slave is only a living machine; the freeman will obey only his own will; not the will of others.

Aristotle bases education in the mutual relation of the parents and the child; and commences the training of the child not merely at the birth, but still further back; in the habits and health of the parents, so that the constitution of the future pupil may be as perfect as possible.

MARRIAGE.

Apart from the state, marriage would only be an instinct, as among plants and animals, to leave another self in existence, or at most, to secure the help of children in old age. But the state directs it to a higher purpose; to that of raising citizens such as it needs. Therefore, it orders that marriage, shall take place at the age of complete development of either sex, eighteen in women, and thirty-seven in men, and regulates the habits of the family.

gether, so do children; and childless marriages are earlier dissolved.

Daughters, and the whole training of the female sex, occupy a much lower place with Aristotle than with Plato. He commends, it is true, certain good qualities in them; to wit, of the body, beauty and size; of the mind, moderation, love of labor without any servile quality; but for their development he seems to have considered no education necessary either for their bodies or their minds. Wives, however, should possess these virtues, since they tend to secure the common good, and since without them the life of the state would lose half its happiness; as in the case of the Lacedæmonians.

PHYSICAL CARE OF CHILDREN.

The father cares for the instruction and bringing up; the mother, for the physical management and nature of children. In the whole management the natural difference between the sexes must be kept in mind. Character of early nourishment is of importance for the body. The most suitable is that which contains much milk. Even for infants proper exercise should be provided, and all distortions of the limbs, avoided. They should be accustomed early to cold; which is calculated to make healthy and strong bodies. For this purpose many barbarians dip children when newly born into a river, and permit them to wear only very light clothing. The value of early habitudes is everywhere insisted on.

Until the fifth year, children are not to be subjected to instruction, nor to fatiguing labor, that their growth may not be impeded. Still, exercise enough should be taken to prevent inactivity and sloth. This should be given by means of various little employments and by plays. The best plays are those which imitate what is afterward to be performed in earnest.

Many legislators have mistakenly attempted to prevent the violent crying of children, which helps their growth, and is as it were their first gymnastic training; for they strengthen themselves in that manner, by drawing long breaths.

EDUCATION AND THE STATE.

Since all arts and all instruction seek to supply the deficiencies of nature, in like manner is it the purpose of all education to train the children, as imperfect beings, into perfect citizens; because they will at a future time take a part in the social organization, and because without the complete training of each member, the state can not attain to its own perfection. The neglect of education is accordingly exceedingly shameful to the State; since its own main-

tenance depends upon it, and by it, it preserves the necessary unity. Even the most useful laws, freely adopted, are useless, unless the citizens are morally and intellectually trained up for the State, according to its constitution; democratically in a democracy, aristocratically in an aristocracy. It is likewise a shame to have received no education; for the educated man is as distinct from the uneducated as the living from the dead. Education is in prosperity an ornament, in adversity a refuge, in old age the best resource. In general, therefore, the legislator ought especially to care how and by what means men shall become good, and to consider what is the purpose of the best life. Most of the law-making is defined by the collective virtue of the nation; since laws enjoin to live in accordance with every virtue, and to avoid faults; but that which is especially enjoined by this common virtue is, an education aiming at the common good. The purpose of education is to train children and youth to perform the duties of war and the employments of peace—to enjoy leisure, and do whatever is necessary and useful.

A boy can only with difficulty be brought into the road to virtue, unless he is early subjected to good discipline; which is the more necessary for him, since youth has naturally little love for moderation or self-command. The emotions should early be trained to virtue, that they may love the good and hate the bad. But where, as in most places, education is neglected by the State, it becomes necessary for private persons, fathers and guardians of youth, to give it; especially, for those who are by wisdom and experience best fitted to make the necessary regulations. It is only by proceeding on fixed principles, whether reduced to written laws or not, that education is profitable either to the State or the family. To the success of private education, love contributes much; and in many respects it is better for single persons to teach single persons; *e. g.*, from experience, or from literary knowledge. The public laws can only make general rules, under which parents must learn by experience what modifications to make; and this is the difference between public and private education. In a well organized state, education must be one and the same for all, since all seek the same object, namely, to become good citizens. But it must be furnished by the State, not by individuals, and the training in the common branches of acquirement must be also common; for every citizen is a part of the State.

According to the foregoing difference in the human soul, education is two-fold; moral, through training; and intellectual, through instruction. As, however, the body develops earlier than the soul,

so does the unreasoning part of the latter earlier than the reasoning. The training of the body must therefore be attended to earlier than that of the mind; and of the latter, the appetites and passions must first be put under training, since by virtue of the nature of the soul, moral education precedes that of the understanding.

MORAL EDUCATION.

In regard to moral influence upon the young, we find a material difference between Aristotle and Plato; the former seeking to refer his system of training for virtue to fixed principles, and paying far less stress upon what we should call religious education, and the early direction and cultivation of the idea of God in the heart and the feelings. He also thinks less of the actual knowledge of mythology and religious poetry, which he considers mere allegorical shells of truth; in these respects being much more boldly and positively opposed to the popular beliefs, than the more poetic Plato.

Moral education he says, depends mostly upon practice. The better the training in morals, the more secure is the condition of the State; for the laws have no power except in connection with this training. Some persons are good by natural endowment, others by practice, others still by instruction. But the training of the reason by instruction does not succeed with all; wherefore it becomes particularly necessary to secure the early training of youth in right habits.

Moral instruction is the more important, since man, in proportion as he is educated only in the intellect, degenerates the faster into the most wicked and savage of all beings; and his more disciplined reason only puts more weapons into his hands wherewith to injure others. A wicked man can cause infinitely more evil than a wild beast.

Aristotle seems inclined to believe that there are men whom no education can improve; who in fact are by nature incapable of improvement. According to him, the deaf and dumb must remain in complete and incurable ignorance, or at most, can only acquire something of good manners and morals by practice. To the virtue of men, upon which is based the virtue of the State, conduce natural endowments, practice, and education. The natural endowment is a gift; the others fall within the province of education. Some things are learned by practice, others by hearing. A man can not become wise by the mere gift of nature. The educational inspectors appointed by the State (Paidonomes) decide what writings and

myths the younger children are to use as an introduction to their other studies. The Paidonome must indeed have the supervision of the whole life of the children, and must see that while they yet live in their father's house, until the age of seven, when the State takes charge of their education, they shall be as little as possible in company with the slaves, who are ignorant persons.

Above all things care must be taken that the children shall not hear or see any open vileness; and the legislator should strive to prevent nothing more than shameful speaking, because it leads to similar actions. The use of unchaste language should be punished with infamy and blows. In like manner the young must be kept from improper pictures and sports. Aristotle differs from Plato in permitting the young to attend dramatic exhibitions; which he does on the ground that they are a means of cultivating the affections.

The virtues to be especially cultivated by the young are bravery and temperance, both of body and mind; by which the opposite vice of loose habits is avoided; an avoidance the more necessary because children are prone to follow their own impulses, and the desire for pleasure is strongest in them. Excessive eating and drinking, as does every thing carried to excess, destroy the health, while temperance maintains and strengthens it. As all virtues depend on practice, children should be early trained to temperance. The appetites must be brought into such harmony with the reason, that the principle of temperance shall decide upon the what and how and when of their gratification. A chief means against intemperance is a proper education; and without it, even the noblest gifts of human nature may degenerate.

An affection—not to say virtue—peculiar to the period of youth, is modesty; which is particularly serviceable to the young, because their active passions incline them toward extravagances. Obedience is another necessary attribute of youth; for unlimited independence weakens the reason, and strengthens any natural tendency to become a bad master. Disobedience does more harm than a physician's errors. Children are, therefore, even if they do not themselves understand a reason for obedience, to be trained to be convinced that there is one, by the sayings of the experienced, the old and the wise.

Noble friendship, and the society of good men are among the most powerful incentives to virtue and preservatives against youthful extravagances and other failings; and from the records of the past, even a higher class of like influences is derivable. Such friendships are means of the easier application, inasmuch as the

young are peculiarly ready to contract friendships, and are peculiarly disinterested and magnanimous in them. Boys' love, which Plato values so much, is of small account with Aristotle; and the extravagances of love would be lost in the quieter feeling of friendship.

INTELLECTUAL EDUCATION; LEARNING IN ITSELF AND AS RELATED TO THE STATE.

Man is of all created beings best fitted and most inclined to imitation. The tendency to it acts even in childhood, and is closely connected with the very important desire after knowledge or learning. Hence, the whole of the beginning of instruction depends upon imitation. The pleasure of learning, especially of some easy acquisition, such as perceiving the actual similarity between two distinct things, an original and a copy, and the exercise of the reason connected therewith, gives us the greatest delight; indeed, every exercise of the understanding is pleasurable. The pleasure of learning must be greater in proportion as any body of knowledge is capable of being learned—and every thing which can be known can be learned; and also in proportion as the acquiring of knowledge is not mere mechanical appropriation of matters offered from without, but is the acquisition of one portion of knowledge to become the foundation of another, and so on in a continual series, so that the course of study shall be a regular gymnastic process of thinking and concluding.

The chief object of the three periods of education, Aristotle states to be, to repair the natural defects of men, and thus to conduct them to virtue and thereby to happiness.

Aristotle makes mention of the difference of opinions as to what the young should learn, in order to the attainment of virtue and of the highest life; and of the conflicting questions, whether the principal endeavor should be, after intellectual or moral training; and whether the objects to be gained should be what is necessary in actual practical life, what pertains to virtue, or what transcends the sphere of the outer life, and belongs to the province of speculation. Notwithstanding the various opinions about virtue itself, men very generally agree as to what is calculated to further the acquisition of it. Evidently, says Aristotle, amongst the most useful employments of life, the necessary ones are those first to be learned; yet with a clear distinction between the free employments and the servile. At the present day this distinction does not exist, and we may therefore pass over its consequences; but he takes a much more important one, namely, of the purposes for which the acquirements are made. To labor for one's self, for one's friends, for virtue, is not dis-

honorable to a freeman; but to labor for other persons is a reproach; he who does this likens himself to a day-laborer or a slave. The established departments of instruction point in two directions; toward the acquisition of knowledge immediately useful, and toward intellectual training. These departments are usually four; grammar, gymnastics, music, and drawing; the last being sometimes omitted from the list. Aristotle is besides inclined to the study of mathematics, as useful for the young, and to those of dialectics and rhetoric; but politics he would not permit.

GYMNASTICS.

Since intellectual cultivation depends upon bodily, youth must first be trained in gymnastics and regimen. The former gives beauty and health to the body, the latter fits the youth for the duties of civil life and of war. Health, and the proper development of corporal power, are called Harmonies, as dependent upon certain mixtures or combinations. The purpose of gymnastics is to give a combination of strength with beauty; as the former quality alone would only make a prize-fighter or a sort of beast of prey.

Up to the age of puberty the exercises must be of a lighter kind, not to hinder the development of the body; after the fourteenth year they may be more severe. But bodily and mental exertions should not be made at the same time, since one hinders the other. The exercises for bodily development should be quite distinct, in order to full efficiency. Gymnastic virtue, is a result of the size, strength and quickness of the body.

MUSIC.

Of all the arts, Aristotle values most that of executing what may be understood by the hearing; as having especially an ethical character, and an immediate influence upon the inner life. Of all arts, music is most imitative, most capable of employing our leisure profitably, and of influencing the soul, as medicine does the body; since it is a relaxation from exertion, and likewise gives pleasure. We require to know something which may occupy us in leisure hours. For such reasons the ancients included music in their public instruction. It serves an important purpose, in three ways; by exercising an influence upon the character, by accustoming us to enjoy ourselves in a profitable manner, and by furnishing a pure occupation for leisure hours.

Singing is especially adapted to this purpose; and selected songs for the young should be morally instructive, or animating and inspiring to activity; purposes to some extent served by instrumental

music also. In short, music should be a part of education not only for the profit of it, but for more reasons, namely: with a view to purity of mental habits, to an ennobling entertainment, to relaxation and refreshment after laborious exertion, and above all to moral improvement.

DRAWING.

The art of drawing is useful in teaching the right understanding of the works of artists. Youth should be instructed in it, however, not only for the sake of its immediate practical use, but much more that their sense of bodily beauty may be developed and strengthened; for to look exclusively to the useful, is unworthy of lofty and noble minds. Drawing has not so powerful a moral influence as music; still, it is by no means a matter of indifference upon what sort of pictures and statues the eyes of the young are cast. Above all things, indecorous representations should be kept out of their sight.

GRAMMAR AND RHETORIC.

Grammar is useful in money making, in economy, in many civil occupations; still, it should not be acquired merely for these external needs, but with much more reference to its value as a means of acquiring much other valuable knowledge.

Aristotle no where settles upon any special method of instruction in grammar nor rhetoric, nor does he ever give any hints about it. He however recommends the art of memory or memories, as an indispensable assistant in acquiring knowledge; and makes an attempt to investigate it thoroughly. Nothing of the kind appears either in Socrates or Plato. He accounts for the power of memory by supposing a series of notions connected together by a law of association of ideas, under an inward mental necessity.

MATHEMATICS.

This department of study has by no means so important a place in Aristotle's system of instruction for the young, as in Plato's; it having no connection whatever with morals. To geometry especially, he will concede no higher rank than that of a mere speculative pursuit.

DIALECTICS.

This branch of learning has according to Aristotle a threefold use. It serves as a special training for the understanding, as a means of intercourse with others, and in the pursuit of philosophical knowledge, as a means of more clearly distinguishing the false from the true. It moreover points out the road from the lower to the higher branches of knowledge; and the syllogistic art is in this connection the central point of mental activity.

II. RABELAIS AND HIS EDUCATIONAL VIEWS.

1483—1553.

Francis Rabelais, "the great jester of France," as he is designated by Lord Bacon, and in spite of buffoonery, a scholar and physician of profound learning, was born at Chinon, a small town of Toulaine, in 1483. He received the rudiments of education at the convent of Sevillé, near his native town, and continued his classical and ecclesiastical studies at Angiers and at Poitou, where he entered the order of St. Francis. He took his successive degrees of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor at Montpelier, where he also lectured as professor on Hippocrates and Galen—whose works he subsequently edited, and whose medical system he strove to bring into practice at Lyons. At Montpelier, with the permission of Clement VIII., he was absolved from his vows as a Franciscan, and entered the Benedictine order. For neither order did he show much respect, and by both was he greatly persecuted for the freedom with which he assailed the ignorance and indolence of the monks generally. He was for some time canon in the Abbey of Saint-Maur-des Fossés, where he composed his two works, the "*History of the great Giant Gargantua and that of his son Pantagruel.*" He was subsequently transferred to Meudon, as parish priest, where his house was the resort of the learned; his purse was always open to the needy; and his medical skill was gratuitously employed in the service of his parishioners. He twice visited Rome, once as physician to the suite of Cardinal du Bellay, whose friendship he made when at school in Angiers. He was frequently at Paris, where his society was much coveted for his wit and practical jokes, as well as for his learning. He died in 1553, in Paris. The two romances, on which the fame of Rabelais rests, were first published before 1529. The royal privilege, dated 1545, granted by Frances I., to "our well-beloved Master Francis Rabelais," for printing a correct and complete edition of his work, set forth that many spurious publications of it had been made, and its continuance and completion had been solicited "by the

learned and studious of the kingdom." The works and the author were attacked on all sides—by the champions and opponents of Aristotle, of the church, of the reformed doctrines, of religious orders, of the Sorbonne, and of the university teaching. To some of them, as now, they seemed a farrago of impurity, blasphemy, and hate,—and to others, masterpieces of wit, pleasantry, and philosophy. President De Thou, describes the author and his books as follows:—"Rabelais had a perfect knowledge of Greek and Latin literature, and of medicine, which he professed. Discarding, latterly, all serious thoughts, he abandoned himself to a life of sensuality. and, to use his own expression, embracing as his own the art of ridiculing mankind, produced a book full of the mirth of Democritus, sometimes grossly scurrilous, yet most ingeniously written, in which he exhibited, under feigned denominations, as on a public stage, all orders of the community and of the State, to be laughed at by the public." He has been imitated by satirists in France, and England; Scarron, Molière, and Lafontaine,—Swift, Dryden, and Sterne, owe to him some of their happiest hits and grotesque conceptions. Coleridge classed "Rabelais with the great creative minds of the world, with Homer, Shakspeare, Dante, and Cervantes." "When he is good, nothing can be more choice or excellent."

The views of Rabelais on the educational institutions and usages of his age, and his suggestions for remedying abuses and introducing better principles and methods, are worthy of study both for their historical and philosophical value. These exposures and suggestions are made under cover of the most gross fables and extravagant tales of giants, magicians, and adventurous knights, and also of grotesque, fantastic allegories, and satirical conceptions of characters and events. Beneath these coverings, Rabelais has anticipated many of the most valuable suggestions of Montaigne and Locke, as well as the best practical methods of our own day—on the proper treatment of the infant body and mind; on the cultivation of the perceptive faculties by the constant observation of common objects and phenomena; on the construction as well as use of apparatus by which the principles of science are illustrated, and their application to mechanical purposes shown; and on the education of the moral sense and of habits of temperance, obedience and reverence.

M. Guizot in 1812, devoted an essay to the educational views of Rabelais, in confirmation of a remark of Quevedo, that traces of all great moral truths may be found in every age; "Truth is the voice of God, and the voice of God is never silent." From this article we gather the following summary of Rabelais' views of education.

EDUCATIONAL VIEWS OF RABELAIS.

Rabelais—a writer who exaggerated license at a period when license reigned supreme, who was rarely gay without buffoonery, and often a buffoon without liveliness, who squandered in strange and bold inventions the riches of his imagination, and who seems to have resolved to speak seriously only of folly,—can not be deemed a great master of the subject of education. He has, however, recognized and pointed out the vices of the systems and educational practices of his own time; and he anticipated, at the commencement of the sixteenth century almost every sensible or useful view in the works of modern philosophers; among others, those of Locke and Rousseau.

Rabelais has drawn the whole plan and given a complete view of a sensible, harmonious, and liberal education. How did he set about the execution of such a work in the midst of fanatic violence and gross ignorance? Rabelais begins by avoiding the danger of coming into direct collision with received ideas, and the customs he wished to oppose, by transporting himself, and his personages into a strange, imaginary world, in which he is free to educate them as he pleases. The regents of the colleges of the sixteenth century, could scarcely claim that Pantagruel, who, "from the first hour of his birth swallowed at a meal the milk of four thousand cows, and wore in his first shirt 900 ells of Chateleraud linen," was treated like one of the little boys who trembled before their ferule. Rabelais, is then, thanks to his conceits, the undisputed master of Pantagruel's education, as well as of his father's. How will he direct it?

Pantagruel is in his cradle. He is bound and swaddled like all the infants of the period; but Gargantua, his father soon perceives that these bands impede his movements, and that he attempts to burst them, he therefore commands "that he be freed from the said constraints, by the advice of the assistant princes and lords; the physicians of Gargantua also declared that if he was so trammeled in his cradle he would all his life be subject to gravel." So Pantagruel was placed at ease, as our children are to-day. His early education is entirely physical. During childhood we rightly give an important place to the free development of the body; we do not undertake to cultivate laboriously, the intellectual faculties, before those of the body have acquired a certain degree of firmness. We allow our infants to creep, tumble, to exert their limbs and strength in every possible way. What does Pantagruel? "From the age of three, to five, he was nurtured and established in all suitable dis-

cipline by his father's command, and this time was spent in the same way as the country children pass theirs, that is to say, in drinking, eating, and sleeping,—in eating, sleeping, and drinking,—in sleeping, drinking, and eating. Every day he rolled in the mud, smutted his nose, besmeared his face, chased the butterflies; the little dogs ate from his porringer, he likewise ate with them; he bit their ears, they seized his nose, etc., etc." Thus Pantagruel became large and strong at a very early age: his father continued to require him to exercise his body in order to render him adroit and agile. "In order that he might become a good horseman, they gave him a fine large wooden horse, which could walk, jump, leap, kick, and dance."

The time came, nevertheless, when it became necessary to instruct Pantagruel. The quickness and versatility of his mental powers, developed naturally and without constraint, caused Gargantua to entertain great hopes of him. Unfortunately Gargantua had not yet experienced the absurdity of the educational methods generally used in his time: he therefore confided Pantagruel "to a celebrated learned sophist, named Master Tubal Holofernes, who began to educate him as was then the custom. What did the doctor teach him?

"He taught him his A B C so well that at five years old, he could say it by heart backwards: then he read to him "*Donat*," and "*Farcet*,"[1] etc., until he was thirteen years, six months and two weeks old;—afterward he read "*De Modis Significandi*," with the comments of Hurtbise, Fasquin, and many others, until he attained the age of eighteen years and eleven months; he knew this so well that at the examination he rendered it by heart backwards, and proved to his mother that "*De Modis Significandi non erat Scientia*."

After so many years passed in such labors and wearinesses, what did Pantagruel know? "His father perceived that although he had studied much, devoting all his time to it, it profited him nothing. And, what was worse, he became foolish, simple, dreaming, and absent. He therefore complained to Don Philip des Marais, thinking that it would be better for his case to learn nothing, for their knowledge was only stupidity, and their wisdom, emptiness, abusing noble minds and corrupting the freshness of youth." Gargantua was not headstrong; he did not shut his eyes in order to see nothing, and then believe what he saw; Pantagruel was withdrawn from the care of his former preceptors and placed with Ponocrates a teacher of quite a different stamp, who accompanied him to Paris, for the purpose of remodeling and finishing his education.

Ponocrates did not place him in college: "I would rather have

1, See Note, page 156.

placed him among the ragamuffins of Saint-Innocent, because of the enormous cruelty and villany that I have known in college; for the slaves among the Moors and Tartars, the murderers in the criminal prison, certainly the household dogs are much better treated than the wretches in the said college, and if I was king of Paris, the devil take me, if I would not put fire inside, and burn the principal and regents who cause this inhumanity to be used before their very eyes." Rabelais, as it appears by this, held the college of Montaigne particularly in aversion, for he elsewhere says—"Tempeste was a chief whipper of students in the college of Montaigne. If pedagogues are ever damned for indulging poor little innocent scholars, he is, I believe, by the wheel of Ixion, whipping the dog who moves it." The education of Pantagruel was then, gentle and well considered. Ponocrates, "seeing that nature endures no sudden changes, without danger," allowed him at first, to do as he had been accustomed, "in order to understand by what means during a time so long, his old instructors had rendered him so stupid and ignorant." He left him uncontrolled for several days, and was not long in perceiving that weariness and disinclination to his early studies had made Pantagruel listless and idle. Ponocrates applied himself to his reformation, not constraining him, but leading him into another kind of life; he never sought to enslave the reason of his pupil; he wished to render it capable of commanding, not enslaving it to obedience; for he considered this, "a usage of tyrants who would substitute their will, for reason, not of wise men and scholars who satisfy their readers by plain reasons." So Pantagruel soon gained a taste for labor; "which however difficult it appeared in the beginning, grew pleasant, easy, and delightful, seeming rather the pastime of a king, than the studious labor of a scholar." The knowledge Ponocrates desired to impart to his pupil was varied and interesting; the methods he used excited his activity without fatiguing his attention. What were the branches of study, regarded by Rabelais as truly useful? What methods did he advise?

Pantagruel studied astronomy, but not to acquire astrology, and divine starry influences. "Consider divinatory astrology and the art of Luther's as error and foolishness," his father wrote to him. Every evening Ponocrates and he, "at midnight before retiring went out to the most open part of their dwelling, to look at the face of the sky, and to note the comets, if any there were, the appearances, situations, aspects, and conjuctions of the stars." In the morning on rising they examined the condition of the sky, in order to see if it was the same as on the preceding evening, and noticed into what signs the sun and moon entered that day."

By the side of this method of observation, Ponocrates placed mathematics. "They drew up charts, not for amusement, but in order to learn a thousand little new inventions belonging to arithmetic. In this way a liking of the science of numbers was attained—and not only for that, but for other mathematical sciences, as geometry, astronomy and music. They made a thousand cheerful instruments, and geometrial figures, and likewise practiced the astronomical laws, after having made merry by singing four or five parts, or declaiming a theme, for throat exercise."

That was not the only way in which they amused themselves; Ponocrates understood the best ways of rendering study interesting and profitable, by making it *active*, and seeking occasion for it in the ordinary circumstances of life. Did he wish to bring before his pupil the knowledge of the natural sciences, as far as they were then known, that is, to acquaint him with the properties and characteristics of the principal natural objects? During their repast, they began to talk pleasantly together, speaking of the nature of everything served at table; of bread, wine, water, salt, meats, fish, fruits, herbs, roots, and the preparation of them. That done he quoted passages bearing on the subjects under discussion, from Pliny, Dioscorides, Galen, Aristotle, Ælian, and others. Those authors consulted were often brought to the table for that purpose. So well and completely were the things said retained in his memory, that at that time there was no doctor who surpassed him in learning. Is not this the way a father would in our time endeavor to give his children ideas of natural history and physics?

If Ponocrates and his pupil went to walk, botany occupied them. "They passed by meadows or other herbescent places, visited trees and plants, comparing them with their descriptions in the books of the ancients. They loaded themselves with specimens, which they conveyed to their dwelling. A page named Rhizotome, had the charge of them, as well as of the mattocks, stakes, and other instruments required for their cultivation." If rainy weather prevented their botanical excursions, "they visited the shops of druggists, herbists, or apothecaries, and carefully examined fruits, roots, leaves, gums, essences, and also their adulterations." These examinations often extended to the science we call technology; for "likewise they went to see how metals were worked, artillery forged, they visited the lapidaries, jewelers, and workers in precious stones—the weavers, workers in velvets, clockmakers, printers, painters, dealers in wine, studying and examining manufactures and trade in all their branches."

Let no one believe that in thus directing the attention of his pupil to the study of nature and objects, that Ponocrates allowed him to neglect the moral sciences. On the contrary he taught him to seek in everything he saw, or learned some good precept. When Pantagruel reviewed the lessons he had received, "Ponocrates fixed them by a few practical examples, concerning human life, which were sometimes prolonged two or three hours." In other ways the distribution of his time recalled the most serious ideas. "When he first rose, a few pages of scripture were read to him in a loud distinct manner. The subject of this lesson often inclined him to arise, pray, and supplicate the good God, whose majesty and marvelous judgments were shown in the reading. At evening, he briefly recapitulated to his preceptor, everything he had read, seen, known, done, or heard in discourse during the day. Then commending himself to the divine mercy of God, he sought repose."

Truly these were days well employed. Rabelais does not make him enter a gymnasium, properly so called. He describes in detail the various exercises which were taught to the pupil of Ponocrates; and these exercises are not useless plays; their purpose is clearly indicated; their general tendency is to make of Pantagruel what every young gentleman of that time should aim to be—a strong and skillful man-at-arms. So "he wrestled, ran and leaped, not three steps and jump—not hopping—not the vault of Alemant, for, according to Gymnaste his equerry, such leaps are useless in a warlike training; but he would spring over a fosse, leap a hedge, mount six steps up a wall, and creep in this way to a window the height of a lance." For the rest, Rabelais did not wish that these exercises should become a fatigue, or painful labor. "Their entire play was liberty, for they ceased when they pleased, and usually ceased when warm or tired."

The education of Pantagruel is not entirely abandoned to his teacher; his father watched over him with an active, yet restrained tenderness: "not without just and equitable cause, I render thanks to God, my preserver, that he has enabled me to see my age reblooming in thy youth; for, when at the will of Him who rules and disposes all things, my soul will leave this human habitation, I shall not wholly die, but passing from one place to another, waiting in thee and by thee, I survive, my image visible in this world, living, seeing, and talking with men of honor and my friends, as I was wont."

Is not this one of the noblest motives one can present to a young man, to lead him to distinguish himself, to live well, and thus honor the memory of his father which he is destined to perpetuate in the

world? Ought not the counsels of the father to inspire the son with as much gratitude as ardor when he adds, "I do not say this, distrusting thy virtue which has been proved to me, but to encourage thee in thy progress. I write that thou mayst live in this virtuous course, and that to live, and have lived thus, may rejoice and strengthen thy courage for future endeavors."

I would like to quote in full the counsels, which precede sentiments so affectionate and just. I select one passage remarkable for its elevated and extended views; we see a father claimed that destiny has cast the lot of his son in a time more enlightened, and more favorable to the development of the faculties of man than the age in which he was himself born; he exhorts his son to profit by all the faculties afforded him for learning, to share the enlightenment of his century, to honor science and literature in those who cultivate them, and not to add to the stupid pride of rank and riches, the blind pride of ignorance: "When I studied," said he, "the time was not as convenient for the study of letters as it now is, and I did not have the choice of teachers that you have had. The time was yet overshadowed, and had not yet recovered from the calamity brought by the Goths, who had destroyed all valuable literature. But by the divine goodness, enlightenment and dignity have been restored to learning. Now discipline is maintained, the languages re-established, Greek, (of which it is shameful to be ignorant,) Hebrew, Chaldaic, Latin; the elegant and correct printing in use, which invented in my time by divine inspiration, is a counterpoise to the diabolical suggestion of artillery. The world is full of learned men, able preceptors, and ample libraries—and it would be almost useless at this time to seek in any position for a person unfitted for any office of wisdom. Therefore, my son I admonish you to employ your youth in study and the practice of virtue. It is my desire that you learn the languages perfectly, especially the Greek, as Quintilian advises; attend carefully to Latin, and afterward to Hebrew, in order to read the Holy Scripture, and likewise acquire the Chaldaic and Arabic. In Greek form your style on Plato's, in Latin imitate Cicero. History you should remember. In civil law I wish you to know by heart the finest law texts, and compare them with philosophy. Then carefully review the books of the Greek physicians, the works of Arabian and Latin doctors,—that I may see you well versed in science."

Why does Gargantua desire that his son should attend to all these studies, and acquire all this learning? Does he intend to make a scholar or a literary man of him, or to devote him to one of the

professions in which science is indispensable? No; Gargantua knows that Pantagruel is destined from his birth to follow a career in which—according to the opinion of the vulgar, one may do without knowledge; but he also knows, that in every position in life knowledge and enlightenment are honor and power; and he recommends his son to employ the years of youth in the acquisition of knowledge, "for as soon as you attain to man's estate," he remarks, "you will be forced to leave the tranquillity and repose of study, and learn chivalry and arms, in order to defend our rights, and secure our friends and their affairs against the assaults of the evil-disposed."

It is then to devote to an active life, his acquired talents, learning and superiority that Pantagruel yields himself so ardently to study. The advice of his father so wise and gentle, and his "letters received and read by him, inspired him to fresh courage and inflamed to labor more than ever; and you would have said, seeing him thus studying and improving, that his mind among books was like fire among brands, as unwearied and resistless."

Pantagruel never forgot in the midst of his labors that virtue should be the first object of man's efforts. "Science without conscience is the soul's ruin," his father wrote him, "you should serve, love and fear God, and never fall a victim to sin. Fear the corruptions of the world, lend not your heart to vanity, for this life fades, but the word of God is eternal. Reverence your masters, avoid the society of those you do not wish to imitate; and when you have gained the needful amount of knowledge, return to me that I may see you and bless you before I die."

An education so well directed, could not remain unfruitful. Rabelais has endeavored to show, in the development of Pantagruel's character what would be the results of it. This character is especially remarkable for uprightness and trustworthiness. Contrasted with the immorality of Panurge, and the grossness of brother Jean, Pantagruel always appears reasonable, teachable, full of goodness.

Does he dispute? He sometimes strangely abuses learning and dialectics; but it is almost always to return to simple upright maxims, to good sense and justice. Does he act? He shows himself calm and firm. When during his journeys, he experienced at sea that horrible tempest described by Rabelais with so much vivacity and picturesqueness, whilst Panurge abandoned himself to fear and despair, whilst brother Jean, and the sailors struggled against the winds and waves, swearing, and transported by passion, Pantagruel tranquil and reverent, remained standing on the deck,

holding strongly the mast to prevent it from breaking; and when, as the storm increased, all gave themselves up for lost, these words only escaped him—"May God be our Helper."

The affection that Pantagruel bore toward Panurge does not prevent him from recognizing the extreme disorder of his life, and the guilty libertinism of his ideas. Panurge wishes to justify his own prodigality and misconduct by taking the part of those who borrow money, without knowing when, or how, they can return it. Pantagruel silences him, by saying, "It is always a great disgrace, when a person borrows more than he works for, or acquires. One should lend, in my opinion, only when the person asking gains little for his labor, or is suddenly distressed by unlooked for losses."

If we follow Pantagruel through the entire work, we shall see that without pretension, ostentation, probably without any direct moral view, Rabelais has depicted him, as he ought to be after the education he had received; that is to say, just and reasonable, always desirous to extend his knowledge, and maintain his virtue, searching for the truth in everything, examining and tolerating the opinions of others without allowing his own principles to be disturbed, worthy simple and resolute in the midst of the lawless manners, indecent brutalities and licentious immorality of those who surrounded him. We desire to point out a remarkable trait, the more striking as it is closely allied to the results of the education of which we have been treating; that is the respect of Pantagruel for his father. Perhaps no writer has given more strength and importance to filial love and parental authority, than the cynic Rabelais. "In our times," says he, "that fatal civil and religious war began; a war, which penetrating into families, burst the most sacred bonds, and made enemies, of those whom nature formed for mutual love and aid." A few years later, Montaigne could say, speaking of children, "They are wild beasts, produced by thousands in our age, to be hated and avoided as such." It is at such a period, in which so many public and domestic discords were fermenting, that Rabelais depicted a father training his son with the most yielding kindness, the most entire disinterestedness; and this son filled with the tenderest filial affection, the deepest respect, the most lively gratitude. This respect is such, that when Gargantua expresses to his son his desire to see him married,—"Most indulgent of fathers," replies Pantagruel, "I have not yet thought of the subject, but submit myself to your wishes and fatherly commands. I would pray God to die to please you, rather than to live to displease you." Pantagruel departs on a journey. Hardly is he away before his father moved by a tender in

quitude, thus writes, "Dearest son, the affection that a father naturally feels for a beloved son, is much increased in my case, by regard and reverence for special, divinely bestowed graces, which since your departure have precluded all other thoughts; my heart is abandoned to the anxious fear that your embarkation has been unfortunate, or accompanied by some misadventure. You know to a fond and deep affection anxiety is closely joined."

And Pantagruel, deeply touched by this love, thus replies. "Most kind father, since you have favored me by the benefit of your most gracious letters, I am compelled to the fulfillment of a duty rendered voluntary by the past, to praise first, the Heavenly Father who in his divine goodness has preserved you in such perfect health; secondly, to thank you sincerely for the fervent unvarying affection entertained by you for your very humble son;—may my remembrance of it never fail."

Pantagruel in his journeys, not only thinks of his father, but follows and profits by his advice. During his stay at Paris, he visited often "companies of literary men, and those who had visited foreign countries. While he traveled himself, he observed the usages, manners, and peculiarities of the countries through which he passed. "Nor must I fail," writes he to Gargantua, "to collect in commentaries, etc., a full account of our voyage, that at our return you may have a true reading." He purchased rare animals, and curious objects that he met. "The curious animals, plants, birds, precious stones, that I found, and have been able to get during our peregrination, I will bring you."

Thus it is, that in the midst of a deluge of extravagances and fables, he maintained that spirit of research, that desire for instruction, with which his father had sought to inspire him, and which Panurge commends, in saying: "I have long recognized you as a lover of travel, always wishing to see and to learn."

It would appear as if Rabelais, in placing travel at the end of Pantagruel's studies, had wished to indicate that it should be the fulfillment of all education, wisely, broadly, and liberally directed.

I have attributed to Rabelais, no ideas or intentions not his own. I have but quoted part, not all. As to his views, I am far from believing that Rabelais designed to present a complete and regular plan of education. In connecting and condensing his ideas, I have necessarily given them more closeness and simplicity than they have in his directness. He doubtless could not anticipate, to what a great system of principles, knowledge, and facts, another age would attach

them. But the power of the good sense displayed by him is great. In the midst of great obscurity he has sometimes grasped the highest truths, as well as the most subtle.

This is what Rabelais, in a disregarding age, has written on the subject of education. This and other serious matters are treated in a volume, in which one is surprised to find any thing of the kind.

III. JOHN MILTON.

HOME, SCHOOL, AND COLLEGE TRAINING.

MILTON! thou should'st be living at this hour:
The *world* hath need of thee. * * *
* * * * * We are selfish men:
Oh! raise us up, return to us again;
And give us manners, virtue, freedom, power.
Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart:
Thou had'st a voice, whose sound was like the sea:
Pure as the naked heavens, majestic, free,
So did'st thou travel on life's common way,
In cheerful godliness; and yet thy heart
The lowliest duties on herself did lay.—*Wordsworth.*

JOHN MILTON, the most resplendent name for genius and culture, in prose and poetry, in English literature, belongs legitimately to the annals of Pedagogy, both as teacher and author. With natural endowments, such as are vouchsafed to but few in the history of a nation, with rare opportunities of home, school and college culture diligently improved, and his whole youthful training consummated by several years of intercourse with artists, scholars, and statesmen, in different countries, Milton first addressed himself as a worker, to the business of teaching, and to educational reform as "one of the greatest and noblest designs that can be thought of"—"the only genuine source of political and individual liberty, the only true safeguard of states, the bulwark of their prosperity and renown." His "*Tractate on Education*," published in 1644, amid the revolutionary upbreak of English society, maps out a vast domain of literature, science, and art, which only pupils of the amplest leisure, and of the highest industry and emulative ardor, under teachers of the best learning and method, can successfully traverse and master. While its aim is far beyond any thing attained at that day by the university scholars of England, its diligent perusal now, in connection with the study of his own life, will inspire an ingenuous mind "with a love of study, and the admiration of virtue," and its precepts faithfully followed, will fit American youth "to perform justly, skillfully and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war."

JOHN MILTON was born in the city of London, on the 9th of December, 1608. His father was a scrivener—copyist and draftsman of all kinds of documents, legal, commercial, and literary—and had the means and disposition to give his gifted son the opportunities of education which the best private tutors and public schools could impart. These opportunities are graphically described by Prof. Masson, in his elaborate and exhaustive work, entitled the "*Life and Times of John Milton*," from which we shall draw freely.*

HOME EDUCATION OF MILTON.

MORE important in his case than contact with the world of city sights and city humors lying around the home of his childhood, was the training he received within that home itself. It is a warm and happy home. Peace, comfort and industry reign within it. During the day the scrivener is busy with his apprentices and clerks; but in the evening the family are gathered together—the father on one side, the mother on the other, the eldest girl and her brother John seated near, and little Kit lying on the hearth. A grave puritanic piety was then the order in the households of most of the respectable citizens of London; and in John Milton's home there was more than usual of the accompanying affection for puritanic habits and modes of thought. Religious reading and devout exercises would be part of the regular life of the family. And thus a disposition towards the serious, a regard for religion as the chief concern of life, and a dutiful love of the parents who so taught him, would be cultivated in Milton from his earliest years. Happy child, to have such parents; happy parents, to have such a child!

But the scrivener, though a serious man, was also a man of liberal culture. "He was an ingeniose man," says Aubrey; and Phillips, who could recollect him personally, says that while prudent in business, "he did not so far quit his generous and ingenious inclinations as to make himself wholly a slave to the world." His acquaintance with literature was that of a man who had been sometime at college. But his special faculty was music. He had so cultivated the art as to acquire in it a reputation above that of an ordinary amateur. He was a contributor with twenty-one of the first English composers then living, in a collection of madrigals published under the title of "*The Triumphs of Oriana*," all originally intended to be sung at an entertainment in compliment to Queen Elizabeth. His name also appears in "*The Whole Book of Psalms*," 1621, and "*The Tears and Lamentations of a Sorrowfull Soule*," 1614. An organ and other instruments were part of the furniture in the house in Bread Street, and much of his spare time was given to musical study and practice. Hence we can readily understand the high place given by Milton to music in his "*Tractate on Education*." The intervals of more severe labor, he said, might "both with profit and delight be taken up in recreating and composing their travailed spirits with the solemn and divine harmonies of music, heard or learnt—either while the skillful organist plies his grave and fancied descant in lofty fugues, or the whole symphony with artful and unimaginable touches adorn and grace the well-studied chords of some choice composer; sometimes the lute or soft organ-stop waiting on elegant voices, either to religious, martial, or civil ditties, which,

* Vol. I. pp. 65°. Republished by GOULD & LINCOLN.

if wise men and prophets be not extremely out, have a great power over dispositions and manners to smooth and make them gentle." Of this kind of education Milton had the full advantage. Often must he, as a child, have bent over his father while composing, or listened to him as he played. Not unfrequently of an evening, if one or two of his father's musical acquaintances dropped in, there would be voices enough in the Spread-Eagle for a little household concert. Then might the well-printed and well-kept set of the *Orianas* be brought out; and, each one present taking a suitable part, the child might hear, and always with fresh delight, his father's own madrigal:—

Fair Oriana, in the morn,
Before the day was born,
With velvet steps on ground,
Which made nor print nor sound
Would see her nymphs abed,
What lives those ladies led:
The roses blushing said,
"O, stay, thou shepherd-maid!"
And, on a sudden, all
They rose, and heard her call.
Then sang those shepherds and nymphs of Diana,
"Long live fair Oriana, long live fair Oriana!"



They can remember little how a child is affected who do not see how from the words, as well as from the music of this song, a sense of fantastic grace would sink into the mind of the boy—how Oriana and her nymphs and a little Arcadian grass-plat would be before him, and a chorus of shepherds would be seen singing at the close, and yet, somehow or other, it was all about Queen Elizabeth! And so, if, instead of the book of Madrigals, it was the thin, large volume of Sir William Leighton's "*Tears and Lamentations*" that furnished the song of the evening.

Joining with his young voice in these exercises of the family, the boy became a singer almost as soon as he could speak. We see him going to the organ for his own amusement, picking out little melodies by the ear, and stretching his tiny fingers in search of pleasing chords. According to Aubrey, his father taught him music, and made him an accomplished organist.

But, in the most musical household, music fills up but part of the domestic evening; and sometimes it would not be musical friends, but acquaintances of more general tastes, that would step in to spend an hour or two in the Spread-Eagle.

Among the friends of the family were the Rev. Richard Stocke, the minister of the parish of Allhallows, Bread-street, "a constant, judicious, and religious preacher;" Humphrey Lownes, a printer and publisher; and John Lane, the author of "*Poetical Vision*," and continuation of the "*Squire's Tale*" in Chaucer, thus finishing that "story of Cambuscan bold," which, the son afterwards noted, had been left "half-told" by the great original. In the conversation of such men, Milton's boyhood had educational stimulus and food of the best quality.

MILTON'S BOOK AND SCHOOL TRAINING.

Writing in 1641, while his father was still alive, Milton describes his early scholastic education in these words:—"I had, from my first years, by the ceaseless diligence and care of my father, (whom God recompense) been exer-

cised to the tongues and some sciences, as my age would suffer, by sundry masters and teachers both at home and the schools." And again, in another publication after his father was dead:—"My father destined me, while yet a little child, for the study of humane letters. * * * Both at the grammar-school and under other masters at home he caused me to be instructed daily."

PRIVATE TEACHERS.

The only teacher of Milton of whom we have a distinct account from himself, as one of his masters before he went to a regular grammar-school, or who taught him privately while he was attending such a school, was Thomas Young, afterwards a Puritan minister in Suffolk, and well known in his later life as a prominent divine of the Puritan party.

He was a Scotchman by birth. In one of his subsequent publications, at a time when it was not convenient for a Puritan minister of Suffolk to announce his name in full, he signed himself "*Theophilus Philo-Kuriaces Loncardiensis*," which may be translated "Theophilus Kirklover, native of Loncardy," where he was born in 1587. He was sent thence to the University of St. Andrews, where his name is found among the matriculations at St. Leonard's College in 1602. After completing his education in Arts there, and probably also becoming a licenciate of the Scottish Kirk, he migrated into England in quest of occupation—about the very time, it would seem, when the efforts of King James to establish Episcopacy in Scotland were causing commotion among the Scottish Kirkmen. He settled in or near London, and appears to have supported himself partly by assisting Puritan ministers, and partly by teaching.

From Young's subsequent career, and from the unusually affectionate manner in which Milton afterwards speaks of him, it is clear that however his gait and accent may have at first astonished Mrs. Milton, he was a man of many good qualities. The poet, writing to him a few years after he had ceased to be his pupil, speaks of the "incredible and singular gratitude he owed him on account of the services he had done him," and calls God to witness that he reverenced him as a father. And, again, more floridly in a Latin elegy, in words which may be translated thus:—

"Dearer he to me than thou, most learned of the Greeks (Socrates) to Cliniades (Alcibiades) who was the descendant of Telamon; and than the great Stagirite to his generous pupil (Alexander the Great) whom the loving Chaonis bore to Libyan Jove. Such as Amyntorides (Phœnix) and the Philyrean hero (Chiron) were to the king of the Myrmidones (Achilles, the pupil, according to the legend, of Phœnix and Chiron,) such is he also to me. First, under his guidance, I explored the recesses of the Muses, and beheld the sacred green spots of the cleft summit of Parnassus, and quaffed the Pierian cups, and, Clio favoring me, thrice sprinkled my joyful mouth with Castalian wine."

The meaning of which, in more literal prose, is that Young grounded his pupil well in Latin, gave him perhaps also a little Greek, and at the same time awoke in him a feeling for poetry, and set him upon the making of English and Latin verses.

How long Young's preceptorship lasted, can not be determined with precision. It certainly closed about 1622, when Young left England at the age of thirty five, and became pastor of the congregation of English merchants settled in Hamburg.

MILTON AT ST PAUL'S SCHOOL.

From the first it had been the intention of Milton's father to send his son to one of the public schools in town, and before 1620 this intention had been carried into effect.

London was at that time by no means ill provided with schools. Besides various schools of minor note, there were some distinguished as classical seminaries. Notable among these was St. Paul's School in St. Paul's Churchyard, a successor of the old Cathedral School of St. Paul's, which had existed in the same place from time immemorial. Not less celebrated was Westminster School, founded anew by Elizabeth in continuation of an older monastic school which had existed in Catholic times. Ben Jonson, George Herbert, and Giles Fletcher, all then alive, had been educated at this school; and the great Camden, after serving in it as under-master, had held the office of head-master since 1592. Then there was St. Anthony's free school in Threadneedle street, where Sir Thomas More and Archbishop Whitgift had been educated—once so flourishing that at the public debates in logic and grammar between the different schools of the city, St. Anthony's scholars generally carried off the palm. In particular there was a feud on this score between the St. Paul's boys and the St. Anthony's boys—the St. Paul's boys nicknaming their rivals "Anthony's pigs," in allusion to the pig which was generally represented as following this Saint in his pictures; and the St. Anthony's boys somewhat feebly retaliating by calling the St. Paul's boys "Paul's pigeons," in allusion to the pigeons that used to hover about the cathedral. Though the nicknames survived, the feud was now little more than a tradition—St. Anthony's school having come sorely down in the world, while the pigeons of Paul's fluttered higher than ever. A more formidable rival in the city now to St. Paul's, was the free-school of the Merchant Tailors' Company, founded in 1561. Finally, besides these public day schools, there were schools of note kept by speculative schoolmasters on their own account; of which by far the highest in reputation was that of Thomas Farnabie, in Goldsmith's Rents, near Cripplegate.

Partly on account of its nearness to Bread-street, St. Paul's school was that chosen by the scrivener for the education of his son, when he was in or just over his twelfth year.*

There were in all eight classes. In the first or lowest the younger pupils were taught their rudiments; and thence, according to their proficiency, they were at stated times advanced into the other forms till they reached the eighth, whence, "being commonly by this time made perfect grammarians, good orators and poets, and well instructed in Latin, Greek and Hebrew, and sometimes in other Oriental tongues," they passed to the Universities. The curriculum of the school extended over from four to six years, the age of entry being from eight to twelve, and that of departure from fourteen to eighteen.†

* A description of St. Paul's School will be found on pages 141–142.

† For the account of St. Paul's School given in the text, the authorities are,—Stow, edit. 1603, pp. 74, 75; Fuller, Church History, Book V., Section 1; Mr. Cunningham, in his Handbook of London, article "Paul's School;" and, most of all, Strype in his edition of Stow, 1720, vol. I., pp. 163—169. Strype was himself a scholar of St. Paul's from 1657 to 1661, or about thirty-seven years after Milton. The original school was destroyed in the great fire of 1666; but Strype remembered the old building well, and his description of it is affectionately minute.

From the moment that Milton became a "pigeon of St. Paul's," all this would be familiar to him. The school-room, its walls and windows and inscriptions; the head-master's chair; the bust of Colet over it, looking down on the busy young flock gathered together by his deed and scheming a hundred years after he was dead; the busy young flock itself, ranged out in their eight forms, and filling the room with their ceaseless hum; the head-master and the sur-master walking about in their gowns, and occasionally perhaps the two surveyors from the Mercers dropping in to see—what man of any memory is there who does not know that this would impress the boy unspeakably, and sink into him so as never to be forgotten? For inquisitive boys, even the traditions of their school, if it has any, are of interest; and they soon become acquainted with them. And so in Milton's case, the names of old pupils of St. Paul's who had become famous, from Leland down to the still-living prodigy Camden, who (though he had been mainly educated elsewhere, had also for a time been a St. Paul's scholar) would be dwelt on with pleasure; and gradually also the names of the head-masters before Mr. Gill would come to be known in order, from Richard Mulcaster, Gill's immediate predecessor, back through Harrison, Malim, Cook, Freeman, and Jones, to John Rightwis, Lilly's successor and son-in-law, who had acted in a Latin play with his scholars before Wolsey, and so to Lilly himself, the great Abraham of the series, and the friend of Colet.

After all, however, the paramount influence of the school lay necessarily in the character and qualifications of the two masters for the time being. These, at the time with which we are concerned, were Mr. Gill, the head-master, and his son, Alexander Gill, the younger, then acting as usher.

Old Mr. Gill, as he now began to be called, partly to distinguish him from his son, and partly because he was verging on his fifty-seventh year, fully maintained the ancient credit of the school. According to Wood, he was "esteemed by most persons to be a learned man, a noted Latinist, critic and divine, and also to have such an excellent way of training up youth that none in his time went beyond it." Having looked over all that remains of the old gentleman to verify or disprove this judgment—to wit, three works published by him at intervals during his life—we can safely say that the praise does not seem overstated. The first of these works is a tract or treatise, originally published by him in 1601, seven years before his appointment to St. Paul's School, and written in 1597, when he was living as a teacher at Norwich. The tract is entitled "*A Treatise concerning the Trinity of Persons in Unitie of the Deitie*," and is in the form of a metaphysical remonstrance with one Thomas Mannering, an Anabaptist of Norwich, who "denied that Jesus is very God of very God," but said that he was "but man only, yet endued with the infinite power of God." Far more interesting, in reference to Gill's qualifications as a teacher, is his next work, the first edition of which was published in 1619, or just before the time with which we have to do. It is entitled "*Logonomia Anglica*," and is dedicated to King James. Part of the work is taken up with an argument on that new-old subject, the reform of the English Alphabet, so as to bring the spelling of words into greater consistency with their sound; and those who are interested in this subject will find some sensible matter upon it in Gill's book. By adding to the English Alphabet the two Saxon signs for the two sounds of *th*, and another Saxon sign or two, and by farther using points over the vowels to indicate their various sounds, he contrives an Alphabet somewhat like those of

our modern phonetic reformers, but less liable to objection from the point of view of Etymology; and he illustrates this Alphabet by spelling all the English words and passages in his book according to it. But the Spelling-Reform is by no means the main purpose of the book. It is, in fact, what we should now call a systematic grammar of the English tongue, written in Latin. Accordingly it is only in the first part that he propounds his spelling-reform; and the parts on Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody, possess quite a separate value. If Gill was only half as interesting in his school-room as he is in his book, he must have been an effective and even delightful teacher. For example, as an appendix to Syntax in general, he has a chapter on what he calls *Syntaxis Schematistica*, in which he trenches on what is usually considered a part of Rhetoric, and enumerates and explains the so-called tropes and figures of speech—Metaphor, Metonymy, Allegory, Irony, Climax, etc. This part of the book is studded with examples from the English poets, and above all from Spenser, showing a really fine taste in the selection.

The subsequent part of the work, on English Prosody, is, in like manner, illustrated by well-chosen examples; and, among other things, Gill discusses in it the compatibility of classical meters with the genius of the English tongue. The following passage, in which he refers to the supposed influence of Chaucer, exhibits what was apparently another of his crotchets, besides spelling-reform—to wit, the necessity of preserving the Saxon purity of our tongue against Latinisms. After maintaining that, even during the Danish and Norman invasions, the Saxon or English tongue of our island remained pure, he proceeds (we again translate from his Latin) thus:—

"At length about the year 1400, Geoffrey Chaucer, of unlucky omen, made his poetry famous by the use in it of French and Latin words. Hence has come down this new mange in our speaking and writing. * * O harsh lips, I now hear all around me such words as *common, vices, envy, malice;* even *virtue, study, justice, pity, mercy, compassion, profit, commodity, color, grace, favor, acceptance.* But whither, pray, in all the world have you banished those words which our forefathers used for these new-fangled ones? Are our words to be exiled like our citizens? Is the new barbaric invasion to extirpate the English tongue? O ye Englishmen, on you, I say, I call, in whose veins that blood flows, retain, retain what yet remains of our native speech, and, whatever vestiges of our forefathers are yet to be seen, on these plant your footsteps."

While thus working mainly in Philology, Mr Gill had not quite abandoned his Metaphysics. Some fifteen years after the time at which we have now arrived, he brought out his last and largest work, the "*Sacred Philosophy of the Holy Scriptures*"—a kind of detailed demonstration, as against Turks, Jews, Infidels, Heretics, and all gainsayers whatsoever, of the successive articles of the Apostles' Creed, on the principles of pure reason. It is not to be supposed but that in those days, when the idea of severing the secular from the religious in schools had not yet been heard of, his pupils would now and then have a touch of his Metaphysics as well as of his Philology. They were lucky if they had not also a touch of something else. "Dr. Gill, the father," says Aubrey in one of his MSS., "was a very ingeniose person, as may appear by his writings; notwithstanding, he had his moods and humors, as particularly his whipping fits. Often Dr. G. whipped Duncombe, who was afterwards a Colonel of Dragoons at Edgehill fight."

Young Gill, the usher or sur-master, was by no means so steady a man as his father. Born about 1597, he had been educated at St. Paul's School; had gone thence, on one of the Mercers' Exhibitions, to Trinity College, Oxford; and, after completing his course there, and taking orders, had come back to town about 1619, and dropped conveniently into the place of his father's assistant. For a time, either before or after this, he assisted the famous Farnabie in *his* school.

Such were the two men, not uninteresting in themselves, to whose lot it fell to be Milton's schoolmasters. He was under their care, as we calculate, at least four years—from 1620, when he had passed his eleventh year, to the winter or spring of 1624—5, when he had passed his sixteenth. During a portion of this time—most probably till 1622—he had the benefit also of Young's continued assistance at home.

St. Paul's School, it is to be remembered, was strictly a grammar-school—that is, a school for classical instruction only. But since Colet's time, in virtue of the great development which classical studies had received throughout the nation at large, the efficiency of the school within its assigned limits had immensely increased. Instead of peddling over Sedulius, and other such small practitioners of later or middle-age Latinity, recommended as proper class-books by Colet, the scholars of St. Paul's, as of other contemporary schools, were now led through very much the same list of Roman prose-writers and poets that are still honored in our academies. The practice of writing pure classical Latin, or what might pass for such, both in prose and in verse, was also carried to a perfection not known in Colet's time. But the improvement in Latin was as nothing compared with what had taken place in Greek. Although Colet in his testamentary recommendations to the Mercers had mentioned it as desirable that the head-master should know Greek as well as Latin, he had added, "if such a man can be gotten." That, indeed, was the age of incipient Greek in England. Colet had none himself; and that Lilly had mastered Greek, while residing in earlier life in Rhodes, was one of his distinctions. Since that time, however, the passion for Greek had spread; the battle between the Greeks and the Trojans, as the partizans of the new learning and its opponents were respectively called, had been fought out in the days of Ascham and Elizabeth; and, if Greek scholarship still lagged behind Latin, yet, in St. Paul's and other schools, Greek authors were read in fragments, and Greek exercises written, in anticipation of the more profound labors of the Universities. Probably Hebrew was taught optionally to a few of the highest boys.

Whatever support other instances may afford to the popular notion that the studious boys at school do not turn out the most efficient men in after life, the believers in that notion may save themselves the trouble of trying to prove it by means of Milton's boyhood.

Milton's own account of his habits as a schoolboy.—"My father destined me while yet a little boy for the study of humane letters, which I seized with such eagerness that from the twelfth year of my age I scarcely ever went from my lessons to bed before midnight; which, indeed, was the first cause of injury to my eyes, to whose natural weakness there were also added frequent headaches. All which not retarding my impetuosity in learning, he caused me to be daily instructed both at the grammar-school and under other masters at home; and then, when I had acquired various tongues, and also some not insignificant taste for the sweetness of philosophy, he sent me to Cambridge, one of our two national universities."

Aubrey's account.—"When he went to school, when he was very young, he studied very hard, and sat up very late, commonly till twelve or one o'clock at night; and his father ordered the maid to sit up for him."

Wood's account.—"There (at Cambridge) as at school for three years before, 'twas usual with him to sit up till midnight at his book, which was the first thing that brought his eyes into danger of blindness. By this his indefatigable study he profited exceedingly."

Phillips' account.—(At Paul's School) "he was entered into the rudiments of learning, and advanced therein with * * admirable success, not more by the discipline of the school and the good instructions of his masters * * than by his own happy genius, prompt wit and apprehension, and insuperable industry; for he generally sat up half the night, as well in voluntary improvements of his own choice, as the exact perfecting of his school-exercises; so that at the age of fifteen he was full ripe for academical training."

The boy's studies were not confined to the classic tongues. "When at your expense," he says in a Latin poem addressed to his father in later years, "I had obtained access to the eloquence of the tongue of Romulus, and to the delights of Latium, and the great words, becoming the mouth of Jove, uttered by the magniloquent Greeks, you then advised me to add the flowers which are the pride of Gaul, and the speech which the new Italian, attesting the barbarian inroads by his diction, pours forth from his degenerate mouth, and the mysteries which are spoken by the prophet of Palestine." The application of these words extends beyond Milton's mere school-days; but it is probable that before they were over he had learnt to read French and Italian, and also something of Hebrew. In the letter to Young at Hamburg, already referred to, written in March, 1625, he acknowledges the gift of a Hebrew Bible which Young had sent him.

It is not to be supposed that the literature of his own country remained a closed field to a youth so fond of study, and who had already begun to have dreams for himself of literary excellence. Accordingly there is evidence that Milton in his boyhood was a diligent reader of English books, and that before the close of his school-time in 1624, he had formed some general acquaintance, at least, with the course of English literature from its beginnings to his own time.

MILTON AT CAMBRIDGE.

Milton was admitted a Pensioner of Christ's College, Cambridge, on the 12th of February, 1624—5.* He was one of the fourteen students whose names appear in the entry-book of the College as having been admitted during the half-year between Michaelmas, 1624, and Lady-day, 1625. In the remaining half of the same academic year—namely, from Lady-day to Michaelmas, 1625—there were thirty fresh entries. Milton, therefore, was one of forty-three students who commenced their academic course at Christ's College, in the year 1624—5.

Eight of these fourteen students who were admitted before Lady-day, enter

* It may be well here to remind the reader of the reason for this double mode of dating. Prior to 1752, the year in England was considered to begin, not on the 1st of January, but on the 25th of March. All those days, therefore, intervening between the 31st of December and the 25th of March, which we should now date as belonging to a particular year, were then dated as belonging to the year preceding that. According to *our* dating, Milton's entry at Christ's College took place on the 12th of February, 1625; but in the *old* reckoning, that day was the 12th of February, 1624.

as "lesser pensioners," four as "sizars," and but one as a "greater pensioner." The distinction is one of rank. All the three grades pay for their board and education; and, in this respect, are distinct from the *scholars*, properly so called, who belong to the foundation. But the "greater pensioners," or "fellow-commoners," pay most; they are usually the sons of wealthy families; and they have the privilege of dining at the upper table in the common hall along with the fellows. The "sizars," on the other hand, are poorer students; they pay least; and, though receiving the same education as the others, have a lower rank, and inferior accommodation. Intermediate between the greater pensioners and the sizars, are the "lesser pensioners;" and it is to this class that the bulk of the students in all the Colleges at Cambridge belong. Milton, as the son of a London scrivener in good circumstances, took his natural place in becoming a "lesser pensioner." His school-fellow at St. Paul's, Robert Porey, who entered the College in the same year and month, and chose the same tutor, entered in the same rank. Milton's father and Porey's father must have made up their minds, in sending their sons to Cambridge, to pay, each about £50 a year, in the money of that day, for the expenses of their maintenance there.*

Christ's College, although not the first in point of numbers, was one of the most comfortable colleges in the University; substantially built; with a spacious inner quadrangle, a handsome dining-hall and chapel, good rooms for the fellows and students, and an extensive garden behind, provided with a bowling-green, a pond, alcoves and shady walks, in true academic taste.

In the year 1624—5, when Milton went to Cambridge, the total population of the town may have been seven or eight thousand. Then, as now, the distinction between "town" and "gown" was one of the fixed ideas of the place. While the town was governed by its mayor and aldermen and common-council, and represented in Parliament by two burgesses, the University was governed by its own statutes as administered by the Academic authorities, and was represented in Parliament by two members returned by itself.

Into the little world of Christ's College—forming a community by itself, when all the members were assembled, of some two hundred and fifty persons, and surrounded again by that larger world of the total University to which it was related as a part—we are to fancy Milton introduced in the month of February, 1624—5, when he was precisely sixteen years and two months old. He was a little older, perhaps, than most youths then were on being sent to the University. Still it was the first time of his leaving home, and all must have seemed strange to him. To put on for the first time the gown and cap, and to move for the first time through unfamiliar streets, observing college after college, each different from the others in style and appearance, with the majestic Kings's conspicuous in the midst; to see for the first time the famous Cam, and to walk by its banks,—these would be powerful sensations to a youth like Milton.

A matter of some importance to the young Freshman at College, after his choice of a tutor, is his choice of chambers. Tradition still points out at Christ's College the rooms which Milton occupied. They are in the older part of the building, on the left side of the court, as you enter through the street-

* In the autobiography of Sir Simonds D'Ewes, he tells us that, when he went as a fellow-commoner to St. John's College, Cambridge, in 1618, his father would not make him a larger allowance than £50 a year, which, with the utmost economy, he could barely make sufficient. If this was a stingy sum for a "fellow-commoner," it was probably about the proper sum for a "lesser pensioner."

gate—the first floor rooms on the first stair on that side. The rooms consist at present of a small study with two windows looking into the court, and a very small bed-room adjoining. They do not seem to have been altered at all since Milton's time. When we hear of "Milton's rooms" at College, however, the imagination is apt to go wrong in one point. It was very rare in those days for any member of a College, even a Fellow, to have a chamber wholly to himself. Two or three generally occupied the same chamber; and, in full Colleges, there were all kinds of devices of truckle-beds and the like to multiply accommodation. In the original statutes of Christ's College, there is a chapter specially providing for the manner in which the chambers of the College should be allocated; "in which chambers," says the founder, "our wish is that the Fellows sleep two and two, but the scholars four and four, and that no one have alone a single chamber for his proper use, unless perchance it be some Doctor, to whom, on account of the dignity of his degree, we grant the possession of a separate chamber." In the course of a century, doubtless, custom had become somewhat more dainty. Still, in all the Colleges, the practice was for the students to occupy rooms at least two together; and in all College biographies of the time, we hear of the chum or chamber-fellow of the hero as either assisting or retarding his studies. Milton's chamber-fellow, or one of his chamber-fellows, would naturally be Porey. But, in the course of seven years, there must have been changes.

The Terms of the University, then as now, were those fixed by the statutes of Elizabeth. The academic year began on the 10th of October, and the first, or Michaelmas or October Term, extended from that day to the 16th of December. Then followed the Christmas Vacation. The second, or Lent or January Term, began on the 13th of January, and extended to the second Friday before Easter. There then intervened the Easter vacation of three weeks. Finally, the third, or Easter or Midsummer Term, began on the eleventh day (second Wednesday) after Easter-day, and extended to the Friday after "Commencement Day,"—that is, after the great terminating Assembly of the University, at which candidates for the higher degrees of the year were said to "commence" in those degrees; which "Commencement Day" was always the first Tuesday in July. The University then broke up for the "long vacation" of three months.

The daily routine of college-life in term-time, two hundred and thirty years ago, was as follows:—In the morning, at five o'clock, the students were assembled, by the ringing of the bell, in the College-chapel, to hear the morning service of the Church, followed on some days by short homilies by the Fellows. These services occupied about an hour; after which the students had breakfast. Then followed the regular work of the day. It consisted of two parts—the *College-studies*, or the attendance of the students on the lectures and examinations of the College-tutors or lecturers in Latin, Greek, Logic, Mathematics, Philosophy, etc.; and the *University-exercises*, or the attendance of the students, together with the students of other Colleges, in the "public schools" of the University, either to hear the lectures of the University-professors of Greek, Logic, etc., (which, however, was not incumbent on all students,) or to hear, and take part in the public disputations of those students of all the Colleges who were preparing for their degrees.* After four hours or more so spent, the

* The distinction between *College-studies* and *University-exercises* must be kept in mind. Gradually, as all know, the Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge, originally mere places of res-

students dined together at twelve o'clock in the halls of their respective Colleges. After dinner, there was generally again an hour or two of attendance on the declamations and disputations of contending graduates, either in college or in the "public schools." During the remainder of the day, with the exception of attendance at the evening-service in chapel, and at supper in the hall at seven o'clock, the students were free to dispose of their own time. It was provided by the statutes of Christ's that no one should be out of college after nine o'clock from Michaelmas to Easter, or after ten o'clock from Easter to Michaelmas.

Originally, the rules governing the daily conduct of the students at Cambridge had been excessively strict. Residence extended over nearly the whole year; and absence was permitted only for very definite reasons. While in residence, the students were confined closely within the walls of their respective colleges, leaving them only to attend in the public schools. At other times they could only go into the town by special permission; on which occasions, no student below the standing of a B. A. in his second year was suffered to go unaccompanied by his tutor or by a Master of Arts. In their conversation with each other, except during the hours of relaxation in their chambers, the students were required to use either Latin, or Greek, or Hebrew. When permitted to walk into the town, they were forbidden to go into taverns, or into the sessions; or to be present at boxing-matches, skittle-playings, dancings, bear-fights, cock-fights, and the like; or to frequent Sturbridge fair; or even to loiter in the market or about the streets. In their rooms they were not to read irreligious books; nor to keep dogs or "fierce birds;" nor to play at cards or dice, except for about twelve days at Christmas, and then openly and in moderation. To these and other rules, obedience was enforced by penalties. There were penalties both by the College and by the University, according as the offense concerned the one or the other. The penalties consisted of fines according to the degree of the offense; of imprisonment for grave and repeated offenses; of rustication, with the loss of one or more terms, for still more flagrant misbehavior; and of expulsion from College and University for heinous criminality. The Tutor could punish for negligence in the studies of his class, or inattention to the lectures; College offenses of a more general character came under the cognizance of the Master or his substitute; and for non-attendance in the public schools, and other such violations of the University statutes, the penalties were exacted by the Vice-Chancellor. All the three—the Tutor and the Master as College authorities, and the Vice-Chancellor as resident head of the University—might in the case of the younger students, resort to corporal punishment. "*Si tamen adultus fuerit*," say the statutes of Christ's, referring to the punishment of fine, etc., which the Tutor might inflict on a pupil; "*alioquin virgâ corrigatur*." The Master might punish in the same way and more publicly. In Trinity College there was a regular service of corporal punishment in the hall every Thursday evening at seven o'clock, in the presence of all the undergraduates, on such junior delinquents as had been reserved for the ceremony during the week. The University statutes also recognize the corporal punish-

idence for those attending the University, have, in matters of teaching, absorbed or superseded the University. Even in Milton's time, this process was far advanced. The University, however, was still represented in the public disputations in "the schools," attendance on which was obligatory.

ment of non-adult students offending in the public schools. At what age a student was to be considered adult is not positively defined; but the understanding seems to have been that after the age of eighteen corporal punishment should cease, and that even younger students, if above the rank of undergraduates, should be exempt from it.

In spite of old decrees to the contrary, bathing in the Cam was a daily practice. The amusements of the collegians included many of the forbidden games. Smoking was an all but universal habit in the University.* The academic costume was sadly neglected. At many Colleges the undergraduates wore "new-fashioned gowns of any color whatsoever, blue or green, or red or mixt, without any uniformity but in hanging sleeves; and their other garments light and gay, some with boots and spurs, others with stockings of diverse colors reversed one upon another, and round rusty caps." Among graduates and priests also, as well as the younger students, "we have fair roses upon the shoe, long frizzled hair upon the head, broad spread bands upon the shoulders, and long large merchants' ruffs about the neck, with fair feminine cuffs at the wrist." To these irregularities arising from the mere frolic and vanity of congregated youth, add others of a graver nature, arising from different causes. While, on the one hand, all the serious alike complained that "nicknaming and scoffing at religion and the power of godliness," nay, that "debauched and atheistical" principles prevailed to an extent that seemed "strange in a University of the Reformed Church," the more zealous Churchmen about the University found special matter for complaint in the increase of puritanical opinions and practices, more particularly in certain colleges where the heads and seniors were puritanically inclined. It had become the habit of many masters of arts and fellow-commoners in all colleges to absent themselves from public prayers. Upon Fridays and all fasting days the victualling houses prepared flesh, "good store for all scholars that will come or send unto them." In the churches, both on Sundays and at other times, there was little decency of behavior; and the regular forms of prayer were in many cases avoided. "Instead whereof," it was complained, "we have such private fancies and several prayers of every man's own making, (and sometimes suddenly conceiving, too,) vented among us, that, besides the absurdity of the language directed to God himself, our young scholars are thereby taught to prefer the private spirit before the public, and their own invented and unapproved prayers before the Liturgy of the Church." In Trinity College, "they lean or sit or kneel at prayers, every man in a several posture as he pleases; at the name of Jesus few will bow; and when the Creed is repeated, many of the boys, by some men's directions, turn to the west door." In other colleges it was as bad or worse. In Christ's College there was very good order on the whole; but "hard by this House there is a Town Inn (they call it the 'Brazen George') wherein many of their scholars live, lodge, and study, and yet the statutes of the University require that none lodge out of the college."

It yet remains to describe the order of the curriculum, which students at Cambridge in Milton's time went through during the whole period of their Uni-

* When the tobacco-hating King James visited Cambridge for the first time, in 1615, one of the orders issued to graduates and students was that they should not, during his Majesty's stay, visit tobacco-shops, nor smoke in St. Mary's Chapel or Trinity Hall, on pain of expulsion from the University.

versity studies. This period, extending, in the Faculty of Arts, over seven years in all, was divided, as now, into two parts—the period of Undergraduateship extending from the time of admission to the attainment of the B. A. degree; and the subsequent period of Bachelorship terminating with the attainment of the M. A. degree.

Originally, according to the statutes, a complete *quadriennium* or four years' course of studies—that is to say, twelve full terms of residence in a College, and of standing as matriculated students in the books of the University*—was required for the degree of B. A. Each year of the *quadriennium* had its appropriate studies; and, during the last year of it, the students rose to the rank of "Sophisters," and were then entitled to partake in the disputations in the public schools. During the last year (and in practice it was generally during the last term) of their *quadriennium*, they were required by the statutes of the University to keep two "Acts" or "Responsions" and two "Opponencies" in the public schools—exercises for which they were presumed to be prepared by similar practice in their respective Colleges. The nature of these "Acts" and "Opponencies" were as follows:—One of the Proctors having at the beginning of the academic year collected the names of all the students of the various Colleges who intended to take the degree of B. A. that year, each of them received an intimation shortly after the beginning of the Lent Term that on a future day (generally about a fortnight after the notice was given) he would have to appear as "Respondent" in the public schools. The student so designated had to give in a list of three propositions which he would maintain in debate. The question actually selected was usually a moral or metaphysical one. The Proctor then named three Sophisters, belonging to other Colleges, who were to appear as "Opponents." When the day arrived, the Respondent and the Opponents met in the schools, some Master of Arts presiding as Moderator, and the other Sophisters and Graduates forming an audience. The Respondent read a Latin thesis on the selected point; and the Opponents, one after another, tried to refute his arguments syllogistically in such Latin as they had provided or could muster. When one of the speakers was at loss, it was the duty of the Moderator to help him out. When all the Opponents had spoken, and the Moderator had dismissed them and the Respondent with such praise as he thought they had severally deserved, the "Act" was over.

When a student had kept two Responsions and two Opponencies, (and in order to get through all the Acts of the two or three hundred Sophisters who every year came forward, it is evident that the "schools" must have been continually busy,) he was further examined in his own College, and, if approved, was sent up as a "quæstionist," or candidate for the B. A. degree. The "quæstionists" from the various Colleges were then submitted to a distinct examination—which usually took place on three days in the week before Ash Wednesday week—in the public schools before the Proctors and others of the University. Those who passed this examination were furnished by their Colleges with a *supplicat* to the Vice-Chancellor and Senate, praying that they might be admitted, as the phrase was, *ad respondendum quæstioni*. Then, on a day before

* The reader must distinguish between *admission* into a College and *matriculation* in the general University Registers. Both were necessary, but the acts were distinct. The College books certified all the particulars of a student's connection with his College and residence there; but, for degrees and the like, a student's standing in the University was certified by the matriculation-book kept by the University Registrar.

Ash Wednesday, all the quæstionists from each College went up, headed by a Fellow of the College, to the public school, where, some question out of Aristotle's Prior Analytics having been proposed and answered by each of the quæstionists, (this process being called "entering their Priorums,") they became what was called "determiners." From Ash Wednesday till the Thursday before Palm Sunday, the candidates were said to stand in *quadragesimâ*, and had a further course of exercises to go through; and on this latter day their probation ended, and they were pronounced by the Proctor to be full Bachelor of Arts.

Many students, of course, never advanced so far as the B. A. degree, but, after a year or two at the University, removed to study law at the London Inns of Court, or to begin other business. Oliver Cromwell, for example, had left Sidney Sussex College in 1617, after about a year's residence. Those who did take their B. A. degree, and meant to advance farther, were required by the original statutes to reside three years more, and during that time to go through certain higher courses of study and perform certain fresh Acts in the public schools and their Colleges. These regulations having been complied with, they were, after being examined in their Colleges and provided with *supplicats*, admitted by the Chancellor or Vice-Chancellor *ad incipiendum in artibus;* and then, after certain other formalities, they were ceremoniously created Masters of Arts either at the greater *Comitia* or general "Commencement" at the close of the academic year, (the first Tuesday in July,) or on the day immediately preceding. These two days—the *Vesperiæ Comitiorum*, or day before Commencement-day, and the *Comitia*, or Commencement-day itself—were the gala-days of the University. Besides the M. A. degrees, such higher degrees as LL. D., M. D., and D. D. were then conferred.

By the original statutes, the connection of the scholar with the University was not yet over. Every Master of Arts was sworn to continue his "regency" or active University functions for five years; which implied almost continual residence during that time, and a farther course of study in theology and Hebrew, and of Acts, disputations and preachings. Then, after seven full years from the date of commencing M. A., he might, after a fresh set of forms, become a Doctor of either Law, or Medicine, or a Bachelor of Divinity; but for the Doctorate of Divinity, five additional years were necessary for the attainment of the rank of D. D.; and fourteen years for the attainment of the Doctorates of Law and Medicine.

Framed for a state of society which had passed away, and too stringent even for that state of society, these rules had fallen into modification or disuse. (1.) As respected the *quadriennium*, or the initiatory course of studies preparatory to the degree of B. A., there had been a slight relaxation, consisting in an abatement of one term of residence out of the twelve required by the Elizabethan statutes. This had been done in 1578, by a formal decree of the Vice-Chancellor and Heads. It was then ordered that every student should enroll his name in the University Register, and take his matriculation oath within a certain number of days after his first joining any College and coming to reside; and that, for the future, all persons who should have so enrolled and matriculated "before, at or upon the day when the ordinary sermon *ad Clerum* is or ought to be made in the beginning of Easter Term," and who should be proved by the Commons-books of their Colleges to have in the meantime resided regu-

larly, should be considered to have "wholly and fully" discharged their *quadriennium* in the fourth Lent following the said sermon. In other words, the Lent Term in which a student went through his exercises for his B. A. degree, was allowed to count as one of the necessary *twelve*. Since that time another of the required terms has been lopped off, so that now, *ten* real terms of residence are sufficient. This practice seems to have been introduced prior to 1681; but in Milton's time the interpretation of 1578 was in force. Even then, however, matriculation *immediately* after joining a College was not rigorously insisted on, and a *student who matriculated any time during the Easter Term might graduate B. A. in the fourth Lent Term following.* (2.) It was impossible, consistently with the demands of the public service for men of education, that all scholars who had taken their B. A. degree should thereafter continue to reside as punctually as before during the three additional years required for their M. A. degree, and should then farther bind themselves to seven years of active academic duty, if they aspired to the Doctorate in Laws or Medicine, and to still longer probation if they aspired to the Doctorate in Theology. Hence, despite of oaths, there had been gradual relaxations. The *triennium* of continued residence between the B. A. degree and the M. A. degree was still for a good while regarded as imperative; but after this second degree had been taken, the connection with the University was slackened. Those only remained in the University beyond this point who had obtained Fellowships, or who filled University offices, or who were assiduously pursuing special branches of study; and the majority were allowed to distribute themselves in the Church and through society—there being devices for keeping up their nominal connection with the University, so as to advance to the higher degrees. (3.) Not even here had the process of relaxation stopped. The obligation of three years of continued residence between the B. A. degree and commencing M. A., had been found to be burdensome; and, after giving way in practice, it had been formally abrogated. The decree authorizing this important modification was passed March 25, 1608, so that the modification was in force in Milton's time, and for seventeen years before it. "Whereas," says this decree, "doubt hath lately risen whether actual Bachelors in Arts, before they can be admitted *ad incipiendum*, (the phrase for "commencing" M. A.,) must of necessity be continually commorant in the University nine whole terms, We, for the clearing of all controversies in that behalf, do declare, that those, who for their learning and manners are according to statute admitted Bachelors in Arts, are not so strictly tied to a local commorancy and study in the University and Town of Cambridge, but that, being at the end of nine terms able by their accustomed exercises and other examinations to approve themselves worthy to be Masters of Arts, they may justly be admitted to that degree." Reasons, both academical and social, are assigned for the relaxation. At the same time, lest it should be abused, it is provided that the statutory Acts and exercises *ad incipiendum* shall still be punctually required, and also that every Bachelor who shall have been long absent, shall, on coming back to take his Master's degree, bring with him certificates of good conduct, signed by "three preaching ministers, Masters of Arts at least, living on their benefices," near the place where he (the Bachelor) has been longest residing.

[Masson thus treats of the famous tradition of Milton's having been the victim of corporal punishment during his second year's residence at Cambridge:]

The tradition of some incident in Milton's University life, of a kind which his enemies, by exaggerating and misrepresenting it, were able afterwards to use to his discredit, is very old. It was probably first presented in the definite shape in which we now have it, by Dr. Johnson in his memoir of the poet: "I am ashamed to relate what I fear is true, that Milton was one of the last students in either University that suffered the public indignity of corporal correction."

Warton, Todd, and others have entered somewhat largely into the question of the possibility of the alleged punishment consistently with the College practice of the time. On this head there is no denying that the thing was possible enough. The "*virgâ a suis corrigatur*" of the old statutes certainly remained in force for young under-graduates both at Oxford and Cambridge. As late as 1649, Henry Stubbe, a writer of so much reputation in his day that Wood gives a longer memoir of him than of Milton, was publicly flogged in the refectory of Christ Church, Oxford, when eighteen years of age, for "insolent and pragmatical" conduct. Other instances might be produced to show that in any case Johnson's phrase, "one of the last at either University who," etc., would be historically wrong. There can be no doubt, however, that the practice was getting out of repute. In the new Oxford Statutes of 1635, corporal punishment was restricted (though Stubbe, it seems, did not benefit by the restriction) to boys under sixteen.

Johnson's authority for the statement, we now know, was Aubrey's MS. life of Milton. The original passage is as follows:—

"And was a very hard student in the University, and performed all his exercises with very good applause. His first tutor there was Mr. Chappell, from whipt him whom receiving some unkindness, he was (though it seemed contrary to the rules of the College) transferred to the tuition of one Mr. Tovell, (miswritten for Tovey,) who died parson of Lutterworth."

This passage occurs in a paragraph of particulars expressly set down by Aubrey in his MS. as having been derived from the poet's brother Christopher. It seems impossible, therefore, to doubt that it is in the main authentic. Of the whole statement, however, precisely that which has the least look of authenticity is the pungent fact of the interlineation. That it *is* an interlineation, and not a part of the text, suggests that Aubrey did not get it from Christopher Milton, but picked it up from gossip afterwards; and it is exactly the kind of fact that gossip likes to invent. But take the passage fully as it stands, the interlineation included, and there are still two respects in which it fails to bear out Johnson's formidable phrase, "one of the last students in either University who," etc., especially in the circumstantial form which subsequent writers have given to the phrase by speaking of the punishment as a public one at the hands of Dr. Bainbrigge, the College Master. (1.) So far as Aubrey hints, the quarrel was originally but a private one between Milton and his tutor, Chappell—at most, a tussle between the tutor and the pupil in the tutor's rooms, with which Bainbrigge, in the first instance, might have had nothing to do. (2.) Let the incident have been as flagrant as might be, it appertains and can appertain only to one particular year, and that an early one, of Milton's undergraduateship. At no time in the history of the University had any except undergraduates been liable by statute to corporal punishment; and even undergraduates, if over the age of eighteen, had usually, if not invariably, been considered exempt.

Now Milton attained the age of eighteen complete on the 9th of December, 1626. Unless, therefore, he was made an exception to all rule, the incident must have taken place, if it took place at all, either in his first term of residence, or in the course of that year, 1625—6, with which we are now concerned.

That the quarrel, whatever was its form, did take place in this very year, is all but established by a reference which Milton has himself made to it. The reference occurs in the first of his Latin Elegies: which is a poetical epistle to his friend Diodati, and the date of the composition of which may be fixed, with something like certainty, in April or May, 1626.

Diodati, it seems, had a fancy for writing his letters occasionally in Greek. After taking his degree in December, 1625, Diodati resided for a while in Cheshire, whence, in April or May, 1626, he directs a short but sprightly epistle in Greek to Milton, who was then in London.

"I have no fault to find," he says, "with my present mode of life, except that I am deprived of any mind fit to converse with. In other respects all passes pleasantly here in the country; for what else is wanting, when the days are long, the scenery around blooming with flowers, and waving and teeming with leaves, on every branch a nightingale or goldfinch or other bird of song delighting with its warblings, most varied walks, a table neither scant nor overburdened, and sleep undisturbed?" Then, wishing that Milton were with him, he adds, "But you, wondrous youth, why do you despise the gifts of nature; why do you persist inexcusably in tying yourself night and day to your books? Live, laugh, enjoy your youth and the present hour. I, in all things else your inferior, both think myself and am superior to you in this, that I know a moderation in my labors."

[To this Greek letter Milton replies in a pastoral epistle, which he has preserved among his Latin Elegies. From this we give in translation a few lines evidently bearing on his college troubles.]

"Me at present that city contains which the Thames washes with its ebbing wave; and me, not unwilling, my father's house now possesses. At present it is not my care to revisit the reedy Cam; nor does the love of my forbidden rooms yet cause me grief (*nec dudum vetiti me laris angit amor.*) Nor do naked fields please me, where soft shades are not to be had. How ill that place suits the votaries of Apollo! Nor am I in the humor still to bear the threats of a harsh master (*duri minas perferre magistri,*) and other things not to be submitted to by my genius (*cæteraque ingenio non subeunda meo.*) If this be exile (*si sit hoc exilium,*) to have gone to my father's house, and, free from cares, to be pursuing agreeable relaxations, then certainly I refuse neither the name nor the lot of a fugitive (*non ego vel profugi nomen sortemque recuso,*) and gladly I enjoy the condition of exile (*lætus et exilii conditione fruor.*) O that that poet, the tearful exile in the Pontic territory, [*i. e.* Ovid,] had never endured worse things!" [The poet then dwells on his theater-going, etc.—upon which his biographer thus comments:]

This epistle so far tells its own story. It shows that some time in the course of the spring of 1626, Milton was in London, amusing himself as during a holiday, and occasionally visiting the theaters in Bankside. The question, however, remains, what was the occasion of this temporary absence from Cambridge, and how long it lasted. Was it merely that Milton, as any other student might have done, spent the Easter vacation of that year with his family in town—

quitting Cambridge on the 31st of March, when the Lent Term ended, and returning by the 19th of April, when the Easter Term began? The language and tone of various parts of the epistle seem to render this explanation insufficient. In short, taking all that seems positive in the statements of the elegy, along with all that seems authentic in the passage from Aubrey, the facts assume this form: Towards the close of the Lent Term of 1625—6, Milton and his tutor, Chappell, had a disagreement; the disagreement was of such a kind that Bainbrigge, as Master of the College, had to interfere; the consequence was that Milton withdrew or was sent from College in circumstances equivalent to "rustication;" his absence extended probably over the whole of the Easter vacation and part of the Easter Term; but at length an arrangement was made which permitted him to return in time to save that term, and to exchange the tutorship of Chappell for that of Tovey.

The system of study at Cambridge in Milton's time was very different from what it is at present. The avatar of Mathematics had not begun. Newton was not born till ten years after Milton had left Cambridge; nor was there then, nor for thirty years afterwards, any public chair of Mathematics in the University. Milton's connection with Cambridge, therefore, belongs to the closing age of an older system of education, the aim of which was to turn out *scholars*, according to the meaning of that term once general over Europe. This system had been founded very much on the mediæval notion of what constituted the *totum scibile*. According to this notion there were "Seven Liberal Arts," apart from and subordinate to Philosophy proper and Theology—to wit, Grammar, Logic, and Rhetoric, forming together what was called the *Trivium;* and Arithmetic, Geometry, Astronomy, and Music, forming together what was called the *Quadrivium*. Assuming some rudiments of these arts as having been acquired in school, the Universities undertook the rest; paying most attention, however, to the studies of the *Trivium*, and to Philosophy as their sequel.

By the Elizabethan Statutes of 1561, the following was the seven years' course of study prescribed at Cambridge prior to the degree of Master of Arts:

"1. *The Quadriennium of the Undergraduateship:* First year, *Rhetoric;* second and third, *Logic;* fourth, *Philosophy;*—these studies to be carried on both in College and by attendance on the University lectures (*domi forisque*); and the proficiency of the student to be tested by two disputations in the public schools and two respondents in his own College.

"2. *The Triennium of Bachelorship:* Attendance during the whole time on the public lectures in *Philosophy* as before, and also on those in *Astronomy, Perspective*, and *Greek;* together with a continuance of the private or College studies, so as to complete what had been begun;—moreover, a regular attendance at all the disputations of the Masters of Arts for the purpose of general improvement; three personal responsions in the public schools to a Master of Arts opposing, two College exercises of the same kind, and one College declamation."

In Trinity College, the arrangements for the collegiate education of the pupils seem to have been very complete. Under one head lecturer, or general superintendent, there were eight special lecturers or teachers, each of whom taught and examined an hour or an hour and a half daily—the *lector Humanitatis, sive linguæ Latinæ*, who also gave weekly lectures on Rhetoric; the *lector Græcæ grammaticæ;* the *lector linguæ Græcæ;* the *lector mathematicus;* and four *sublectores*, under whom the students advanced gradually from elementary Logic to the higher parts of Logic and to Metaphysics.

In St. John's College, the next in magnitude after Trinity, the instruction—if we may judge from the accounts given by Sir Simonds D'Ewes of his studies there in 1618 and 1619—does not seem to have been so systematic. For this reason it may be taken as the standard of what was usual in other colleges, such as Christ's.

D'Ewes, being a pious youth, was in the habit, of his own accord, and while yet but a freshman, of attending at the Divinity professor's lectures, and also at the Divinity Acts in the schools. He also attended the public lectures of old Downes, in Greek, (Demosthenes' *De Coronâ* being the subject,) and of Herbert, the poet, in Rhetoric. This was voluntary work, however, undertaken all the more readily that the lectures were gratis, and when Downes, who was a fellow St. John's, offered to form a private Greek class for the benefit of D'Ewes and a few others, D'Ewes was alarmed, and sheered off. "My small stipend my father allowed me," he says, "affording me no sufficient remuneration to bestow on him, I excused myself from it, telling him," etc., and keeping out of his way afterward as much as possible. All the education which D'Ewes received in his *College*, during the two years he was there, consisted—first, in attendance on the problems, sophisms, disputations, declamations, catechisings, and other exercises which were regularly held in the College chapel; secondly, in the daily lessons he received in Logic, Latin, and every thing else, from his tutor, Mr. Holdsworth; and, thirdly, in his additional readings in his own room, suggested by his tutor or undertaken by himself. Here, in his own words, under each of these heads, is an exact inventory of his two years' work:

I. *Public Exercises in the Chapel, etc.* "Mine own exercises, performed during my stay here, were very few—replying only twice in two philosophical Acts; the one upon Mr. Richard Salstonall in the public schools, it being his Bachelor's Act, the other upon Mr. Neyill, a fellow-commoner and prime student of St. John's College, in the Chapel. My declamations, also, were very rarely performed—the first in my tutor's chamber, and the other in the College chapel."

II. *Readings with his Tutor.* "Mr. Richard Holdsworth, my tutor, read with me but one year and a half of that time, [*i. e.* of the whole two years;] in which he went over all Seton's Logic,* exactly, and part of Keckermann† and Molinæus.‡ Of Ethics or Moral Philosophy he read to me Gelius and part of Pickolomineus;§ of Physics, part of Magirus;‖ and of History, part of Florus."

III. *Private Readings and Exercises.* "Which [*i. e.* Florus,] I afterward finished, transcribing historical abbreviations out of it in mine own private

* "Dialectica Joannis Setoni, Cantabrigiensis, annotationibus Petri Carteri, ut clarissimis, ita brevissimis explicata. Huic accessit, ob artium ingenuarum inter se cognationem, Gulielmi Buclæi arithmetica: Londoni, 1611." There were editions of this work, with exactly the same title, as early as 1572, from which time it seems to have been the favorite elementary text-book in logic at Cambridge. The appended "Arithmetic" of Buclæus (Buckley.) is a series of rules in addition, subtraction, etc., in memorial Latin verse—a curiosity in its way.

† Keckermanni, Barthol. Systema Logicæ. 8vo. Hanov., 1600. Keckermann was also author of "Præcognita Logica: Hanov., 1606;" and of other works.

‡ Molinæus is Peter du Moulin, author, among other works, of an "Elementary Logic."

§ Who this *Gelius* was, I do not know; Pickolomineus was, doubtless, Alessandro Piccolomini, Archbishop of Patras, author, among other works, of one entitled "Della Institutione Morale: Venet., 1560," of which there may have been a Latin translation.

‖ Joannes Magirus was author of "Anthropologia, hoc est Comment. in P. Melancthonis Libellum de Animâ: Franc., 1603;" also of "Physiologia Peripatetica: 1611."

study; in which also I perused most of the other authors [*i. e.* of those mentioned as read with his tutor,] and read over Gellius' Attick Nights and part of Macrobius' Saturnals. * * My frequent Latin letters and more frequent English, being sometimes very elaborate, did much help to amend and perfect my style in either tongue; which letters I sent to several friends, and was often a considerable gainer by their answers—especially by my father's writing to me, whose English style was very sententious and lofty. * * I spent the next month, (April, 1619,) very laboriously, very busied in the perusal of Aristotle's Physics, Ethics and Politics, [in Latin translations we presume;] and I read logic out of several authors. I gathered notes out of Florus' Roman History. At night also for my recreation I read [Henry] Stephens's Apology for Herodotus, and Spenser's Fairie Queen, being both of them in English. I had translated also some odes of Horace into English verse, and was now Englishing his book, "De Arte Poetica." Nay, I began already to consider of employing my talents for the public good, not doubting, if God sent me life, but to leave somewhat to posterity. I penned, therefore, divers imperfect essays; began to gather collections and conjectures in imitation of Aulus Gellius, Fronto, and Cæsellius Vindex, with divers other materials for other writings.

The names of the books mentioned by D'Ewes, bear witness to the fact otherwise known, that this was an age of transition at Cambridge, out of the rigid scholastic discipline of the previous century, into something different. The avatar of modern Mathematics, as superior co-regnant with Philology in the system of study, had not yet come; and that which reigned along with Philology, or held that place of supremacy by the side of Philology which Mathematics has since occupied, was ancient Logic or Dialectics.* *Ancient* Logic, we say; for Aristotle was still in great authority in this hemisphere, or rather two-thirds of the sphere, of the academic world. Not only were his logical treatises and those of his commentators and expositors used as text-books, but the main part of the active intellectual discipline of the students consisted in the incessant practice, on all kinds of metaphysical and moral questions, of that art of dialectical disputation, which, under the name of the Aristotelian method, had been set up by the school-men as the means to universal truth. Already, however, there were symptoms of decided rebellion. (1.) Although the blow struck at Aristotle by Luther, and some of the other Reformers of the preceding century, in the express interest of Protestant doctrine, had been but partial in its effects, and Melancthon himself had tried to make peace between the Stagirite and the Reformed Theology, the supremacy of Aristotle had been otherwise shaken. In his own realm of Logic he had been assailed, and assailed furiously, by the Frenchman Ramus, (1515—1572;) and, though the Logic of Ramus, which he offered as a substitute for that of Aristotle, was not less scholastic, nor even essentially different, yet such had been the effect of the attack that Ramism and Aristotelianism now divided Europe. In Protestant countries Ramus had more followers than in Catholic, but in almost every University his "Logic" was known and studied. Introduced into Scotland by Andrew Melville, it became a text-book in the Universities of that country. In Oxford, it made little way;

* Speaking generally, the old system at Cambridge was philology in conjunction with logic, and the latter system has been philology in conjunction with mathematics. Philology, or at least classic philology, has been the permanent element; the others have alternated in power, as if the one must be *out* if the other was *in*.

but there is good evidence that in Cambridge, in the early part of the seventeenth century, Ramus had his adherents.* (2.) A still more momentous influence was at work, however, tending to modify the studies of the place, or at least the respect of the junior men for the studies enforced by the seniors. Bacon, indeed, had died only in 1626; and it can hardly be supposed that the influence of his works in England was yet wide or deep. It was already felt, however, more particularly in Cambridge, where he himself had been educated, with which he had been intimately and officially connected during his life, and in the University library of which he had deposited, shortly before his death, a splendidly-bound copy of his *Instauratio Magna*, with a glorious dedication in his own hand. Descartes, still alive, and not yet forty years of age, can have been but little more than heard of. But the new spirit, of which these men were the exponents, already existed by implication in the tendencies of the time, as exemplified in the prior scientific labors of such men as Cardan and Kepler and Galileo. How fast the new spirit worked, after Bacon and Descartes had given it systematic expression, may be inferred from the fact, that in 1653, there appeared a treatise on the system of English University studies, in which it was proposed to reform them on thoroughly Baconian and even modern utilitarian principles. The author quotes Bacon throughout; he attacks the Universities for their slavishness to antiquity, and their hesitations between Aristotle and Ramus, as if either were of the slightest consequence; he argues for the use of English instead of Latin as the vehicle of instruction; he presses for the introduction of more Mathematics, more Physics, and more of what he calls the "sublime and never-sufficiently-praised science of Pyrotechny or Chymistry," into the course of academic learning. "If we narrowly take a survey," he says, "of the whole body of their scholastic theology, what is there else but a confused chaos of needless, frivolous, fruitless, trivial, vain, curious, impertinent, knotty, ungodly, irreligious, thorny, and hell-hatched disputes, altercations, doubts, questions, and endless janglings, multiplied and spawned forth even to monstrosity and nauseousness?"†

Mutatis Mutandis, the course of Milton's actual education at Cambridge, may be inferred from that of D'Ewes. In passing from D'Ewes to Milton, however, the *mutanda* are, of course, considerable. In the first place, Milton had come to College unusually well prepared by his prior training. Chappell and Tovey, we should fancy, received in him a pupil whose previous acquisitions might be rather troublesome. We doubt not, however, that they did their duty by him. Chappell, to whose charge he was first committed, must have read Latin and Greek with him; and in Logic, Rhetoric, and Philosophy, where Chappell was greatest, Milton must have been more at his mercy. Tovey, also, was very much in the logical and scholastic line, as may be inferred from the fact of his having filled the office of College lecturer in Logic in 1621. Under him, we should fancy, Latin and Greek for Milton would be very much *ad libitum*; and the former lessons in these tongues would be subservient to Logic. Whatever arrangements for collegiate instruction there were in Christ's, as distinct from

* "The Logic of Ramus," says Professor De Morgan, "was adopted by the University of Cambridge, probably in the sixteenth century. George Downame, or Downam, who died Bishop of Derry, in 1634, was prælector of logic at Cambridge, in 1590. His "Commentarii in P. Rami Dialecticam, (Frankfort, 1616,) is an excellent work."

† Academiarum Examen; or the Examination of Academies, etc., by John Webster; London, 1653." It is dedicated to Major-General Lambert,

the instruction of the students under their respective tutors, of these also Milton would avail himself to the utmost. He would be assiduous in his attendance at the "problems, catechisings, disputations, etc.," in the Chapel. There, as well as in casual intercourse, he would come in contact with Meade, Honeywood, Gell, and other fellows, and with Bainbrigge himself; nor, after a little while, would there be an unfriendly distance between Chappell and his former pupil. Adding all this together, we can see that Milton's education *domi*, or within the walls of his own College, must have been very miscellaneous. There still remains to be taken into account the contemporary education *foris*, or in the University schools. Of what this consisted in the statutory attendance at acts, disputations, etc., Milton had, of course, his full share. Seeing, however, that his father did not grudge expense, as D'Ewes's father had done, we may assume that from the very first, and more particularly during the *triennium*, he attended various courses of instruction out of his College. He may have added to his Greek, under Downes' successor, Creighton of Trinity. If there were any public lectures on Rhetoric, they were probably also by Creighton, who had succeeded Herbert as Public Orator in 1627. Bacon's intention at his death, of founding a Natural Philosophy professorship had not taken effect; but there must have been some means about the University of acquiring a little mathematics. A very little served; for, more than twenty years later, Seth Ward, when he betook himself in earnest to mathematics, had to start in that study on his own account, with a mere pocketful of College geometry to begin with. In Hebrew, the University was better off, a Hebrew Professorship having existed for nearly eighty years. It was now held by Metcalfe, of St. John's, whose lectures Milton may have attended. Had not Whelock's Arabic Lecture been founded only just as Milton was leaving Cambridge, he might have been tempted into that other oriental tongue. Davenant, the Margaret professor of Divinity, had been a Bishop since 1621; but excellent lectures were to be heard, if Milton chose, from Davenant's successor, Dr. Samuel Ward, as well as from the Regius professor of Divinity, Dr. Collins, Provost of King's. Lastly, to make a leap to the other extreme, we know it for a fact that Milton could fence, and in his own opinion, fence well.

Of the *results* of all these opportunities of instruction, we have already had means of judging. There was not in the whole University, I believe, a more expert, a more cultured, or a nobler Latinist than Milton, whether in prose or in verse. His knowledge of the Greek and Hebrew tongues can not at present be so directly tested; but there is evidence of his acquaintance with Greek authors, and of his having more than ventured on Hebrew. That in Logic and Philosophy he had fulfilled all that was to be expected of an assiduous student, might be taken for granted, even were certain proofs wanting, which we shall presently adduce. It seems not improbable that the notes from which, in afterlife, he compiled his summary of the Logic of Ramus, were prepared by him while he was a student at Cambridge. Lastly, in the matter of miscellaneous private reading, there is proof that we can hardly exaggerate what Milton accomplished during his seven academic years. Aulus Gellius, Macrobius, Stephens' Apology for Herodotus, and Spenser's Faerie Queene, are the chief authors on D'Ewes' list; but what a list of authors—English, Latin, French, and Italian—we should have before us if there survived an exact register of Milton's voluntary readings in his chamber during his seven years at Christ's!

In addition to Milton's own statement,* Masson cites the testimony of Aubrey, Wood, and Philips, as to the great Poet's industry, and exemplary conduct at the University.

Aubrey's Statement. He "was a very hard student in the University, and performed all his exercises there with very good applause."

Wood's Statement. "There [at Christ's College,] as at school for three years before, 't was usual with him to set up till midnight at his book, which was the first thing that brought his eyes into the danger of blindness. By his indefatigable study he profited exceedingly . . . performed the collegiate and academical exercises to the admiration of all, and was esteemed to be a virtuous and sober person, yet not to be ignorant of his own parts."

Philips' Statement. "Where, in Christ's college . . . he studied seven years, and took his degree of Master of Arts, and, for the extraordinary wit and reading he had shown in his performances to attain his degree, . . . he was loved and admired by the whole University, particularly by the Fellows, and most ingenious persons of his House."

On quitting the university, Milton took up his abode with his father, who had purchased a property in the village of Horton, in Buckinghamshire, devoting himself to the most thorough and comprehensive course of reading—"beholding the bright countenance of Truth in the quiet and still air of delightful studies," and embodying his observations of nature and his pure and beautiful imaginings into the immortal verse of L'Allegro and Il Penseroso, of Lycidas and Comus; and above all, moulding and consolidating his own character and life into "a true poem; that is, a composition and pattern of the best and honorablest things."

Of this period of his life, in his apology, Milton says,—"My morning haunts are, where they should be, at home, not sleeping, or concocting the surfeits of an irregular feast, but up and stirring; in winter, often ere the sound of any bell awake men to labor, or to devotion; in summer, as oft with the bird that first rouses, or not much tardier; to read good authors, or cause them to be read, till the attention be weary, or memory have it full fraught; then with useful and generous labors, preserving the body's health and hardiness, to render lightsome, clear, and not lumpish obedience to the mind, to religion, and our country's liberty, when it shall require firm hearts in sound bodies to stand and cover their stations." Milton made no pretension to a life without "some recreating intermission of labor and serious things,"—but sought in cheerful conversation, and with the harmonies

* To one of his opponents, who asserted that he had been "vomited out of the University after having spent there a riotous youth, he replied in his "Apology for Smectymnuus;"—"It hath given me an apt occasion to acknowledge publicly, with all grateful mind the more than ordinary favor and respect which I found, above any of my equals, at the hands of those courteous and learned men, the Fellows of the College, wherein I spent some years, who at my parting, after I had taken two degrees, as the manner is signified, many ways, how much better it would content them if I could stay, as by many letters full of kindness and loving respect, both before that time, and long after, I was assured of their singular good affection toward me."

of music heard or performed, and in lofty fable and romance, to retouch his spirit to fresh issues, and prepare himself for hardier tasks.

"Next—for hear me out now, readers, that I may tell whither my younger feet wandered,—I betook me among those lofty fables and romances which recount in solemn cantos the deeds of knighthood founded by our victorious kings, and from hence had in renown over all Christendom. There I read, in the oath of every knight, that he should defend to the expense of his best blood, or even of his life, if it so befall him, the honor and chastity of virgin or matron; from whence even then I learned what a noble virtue chastity sure must be, to the defence of which so many worthies, by such dear adventure of themselves had sworn. Also this my mind gave me, that every free and gentle spirit, without that oath, ought to be born a knight, nor needed to expect the gilt spur, or the laying a sword upon his shoulder to stir him up, both by his counsel and his arms, to secure and protect the weakness of attempted chastity;" and then those books, read in hours of recreation, "proved to him so many incitements to the love and observation of virtue." But his strong protection against the seductions of vice was not in the laureat fraternity of poets, or the shady spaces of philosophy, but his early home religious culture. "Last of all,—not in time, but as perfection is last, that care was always had of me, with my earliest capacity, not to be negligently trained in the precepts of the Christian religion."

But his education was not yet complete. On the death of his mother, he visited the continent, and especially Italy, "the seat of civilization, and the hospitible domicil of every species of erudition." In a tour of fifteen months, he made the personal acquaintance of several men of genius, "whose names the world will not willingly let die;" among them, Grotius, and Galileo; and was everywhere received by men of learning, on a footing of equality, which only great conversational powers and sound scholarship could sustain. Of this portion of his life, we fortunately have a brief record from his own pen in reply to some utterly unfounded charges of his unscrupulous assailants, both as to his motives for travel, and his manner of life while abroad.

"On my departure, the celebrated Henry Wotton who had long been king James' ambassador at Venice, gave me a signal proof of his regard, in an elegant letter which he wrote, breathing not only the warmest friendship, but containing some maxims of conduct which I found very useful in my travels. The noble Thomas Scudamore, king Charles' ambassador, to whom I carried letters of recom-

mendation, received me most courteously at Paris. His lordship gave me a card of introduction to the learned Hugo Grotius, at that time ambassador from the Queen of Sweden to the French court: whose acquaintance I anxiously desired, and to whose house I was accompanied by some of his lordship's friends. A few days after, when I set out for Italy, he gave me letters to the English merchants on my route, that they might show me any civilities in their power.

Taking ship at Nice, I arrived at Genoa, and afterwards visited Leghorn, Pisa, and Florence. In the latter city, which I have always more particularly esteemed for the elegance of its dialect, its genius and its taste, I stopped about two months, when I contracted an intimacy with many persons of rank and learning, and was a constant attendant at their literary parties; a practice which prevails there, and tends so much to the diffusion of knowledge and the preservation of friendship.

No time will ever abolish the agreeable recollections which I cherish of Jacob Gaddi, Carolo Dati, Cultellero, Bonomotthai, Clementillo, Francisco, and many others.

From Florence I went to Siena, thence to Rome, where, after I had spent about two months in viewing the antiquities of that renowned city, where I experienced the most friendly attentions from Lucas Holstein, and other learned and ingenious men, I continued my route to Naples. There I was introduced by a certain recluse, with whom I had traveled from Rome, to John Baptista Manso, Marquis of Villa, a nobleman of distinguished rank and authority, to whom Torquato Tasso, the illustrious poet, inscribed his book on friendship.

During my stay he gave me singular proofs of his regard; he himself conducted me around the city, and to the palace of the viceroy: and more than once paid me a visit at my lodgings. On my departure he gravely apologized for not having shown me more civility, which he said he had been restrained from doing, because I had spoken with so little reserve on matters of religion. When I was preparing to pass over into Sicily and Greece, the melancholy intelligence which I received of the civil commotions in England, made me alter my purpose, for I thought it base to be traveling for amusement abroad, while my fellow citizens were fighting for liberty at home. While I was on my way back to Rome, some merchants informed me that the English Jesuits had formed a plot against me, if I returned to Rome, because I had spoken too freely on religion; for it was a rule which I laid down to myself in those places, never to first begin any conversation on religion; but if any questions were put to me concerning my faith, to declare it without reserve or fear. I never-

theless, returned to Rome. I took no steps to conceal either my person or my character; and for about the space of two months I again openly defended, as I had done before, the reformed religion, in the very metropolis of popery. By the favor of God, I got safe back to Florence, where I was received with as much affection as if I had returned to my native country. There I stopped as many months as I had done before, except that I made an excursion for a few days to Lucca; and, crossing the Apenines, passed through Bologna and Ferrara to Venice. After I had spent a month surveying the curiosities of this city, and had put on board the ship the books which I had collected in Italy, I proceeded through Verona and Milan and along the Leman lake to Geneva.

The mention of this city brings to my recollection the slandering More, and makes me again call the Deity to witness, that in all those places in which vice meets with so little discouragement, and is practiced with so little shame, I never once deviated from the path of integrity and virtue, and perpetually reflected that, though my conduct might escape the notice of men, it could not elude the inspection of God. At Geneva I held daily conferences with John Deodati, the learned professor of Theology. Then pursuing my former route through France, I returned to my native country, after an absence of one year and about three months: at the time when Charles having broken the peace, was renewing what is called the Episcopal war with the Scots, in which the royalists being routed in the first encounter, and the English being universally and justly disaffected, the necessity of his affairs at last obliged him to convene a parliament. As soon as I was able I hired a spacious house in the city for myself and my books; where I again with rapture renewed my literary pursuits, and where I calmly awaited the issue of the contest, which I trusted to the wise conduct of Providence, and to the courage of the people."

Thus equipped by genius, "the inspired gift of God rarely vouchsafed, but yet to some in every nation," by learning at once elegant and profound, and by travel, under the most favorable opportunities of studying works of art, and of intercourse with refined society, and with aspirations of the most honorable achievements for the good of his race, and the glory of God, Milton did not feel it below his position or his hopes to become a teacher, to compose school-books, and to employ his great abilities in pointing out "the right path of a virtuous and noble education,—laborious indeed at the first ascent, but else so smooth, so green, so full of goodly prospect, and melodious sounds on every side, that the harp of Orpheus was not more charming."

What he might have accomplished in his own school, if he had converted it into an "ACADEMY," such as he described in his Tractate, which was to be "at once both school and university for a complete and generous education," except in mere professional training; had he devoted himself unreservedly, for any considerable time, to this work, with text-books of his own composing,* and with pupils† capable of receiving his instruction with the same acuteness of wit and apprehension, the same industry and thirst after knowledge as the instructor was imbued with," is now only left to conjecture. Apart from the direct fruit of his teaching, in giving to his country a succession of well-trained youth, a portion, at least, imbued with his own ingenuous and noble ardor, "inflamed with the love of learning and the admiration of virtue, and stirred up with high hopes of living to be brave men and worthy patriots, dear to God, and famous to all ages,"—his example would indirectly have elevated the office of educator of the young in public estimation, and demonstrated the wisdom of securing for it the best talent and highest culture of the community. But the times called for such talents and scholarship as he possessed, in other walks less retired and peaceful; and, "when God commands to take the trumpet and blow a dolorous or a jarring blast, it lies not in man's will what he shall say, or what he shall conceal." And, he did take the trumpet, and, in defence of the people of England, and of their right to institute a republican government, and of the liberty of the press, and of conscience in matters of religion, against prelates, priests, and kings, and their hirelings, he blew a blast, again and again, "of which all Europe rang, from side to side." And, although it was his lot to fall on "evil times and evil tongues,"—to see "the good old cause" of the commonwealth shipwrecked, and every species of licentiousness roll in like a flood over the land which he would gladly have made to smile with the triumphs of temperance, frugality, knowledge, and liberty, yet, not bating one jot of heart or hope, in his blindness and disappointment, he addressed himself to the achievement of his great poem, the PARADISE LOST.

Dr. Johnson, in his Life of Milton, with that spirit of depreciation which breathes throughout his notice of Milton's opinions, character and life, and which was prompted by his hatred of the great poet's religious and political sentiments, makes the following remarks on the educational labors of our author.

"Let not our veneration for Milton forbid us to look with some degree

* Milton was the author of a Latin Grammar, a Treatise on Logic, and a Latin Lexicon.

† This is the language of one of his pupils, who adds that such teaching, with the right sort of youth, would have produced "prodigies of wit [mind] and learning."

of merriment on great promises and small performance, on the man who hastens home, because his countrymen are contending for their liberty, and, when he reaches the scene of action, vapors away his patriotism in a private boarding-school. This is the period of his life from which all his biographers seem inclined to shrink. They are unwilling that Milton should be degraded to a school-master; but, since it cannot be denied that he taught boys, one finds out that he taught for nothing, and another that his motive was only zeal for the propagation of learning and virtue; and, all tell what they do not know to be true, only to excuse an act which no wise man will consider as, in itself, disgraceful. His father was alive; his allowance was not ample, and he supplied its deficiencies by an honest and useful employment.

It is told that, in the art of education, he performed wonders; and, a formidable list is given of the authors, Greek and Latin, that were read in Aldergate street by youth between ten and fifteen or sixteen years of age. Those who tell or receive these stories should consider that nobody can be taught faster than he can learn. The speed of the horseman must be limited by the power of the horse. Every man that has ever undertaken to instruct others can tell what slow advances he has been able to make, and how much patience it requires to recall vagrant inattention, to stimulate sluggish indifference, and to rectify absurd misapprehension.

The purpose of Milton, as it seems, was to teach something more solid than the common literature of schools, by reading those authors that treat of physical subjects: such as the Georgick, and astronomical treatises of the ancients. This was a scheme of improvement which seems to have busied many literary projectors of that age. Cowley, who had more means than Milton of knowing what was wanting to the embellishments of life, formed the same plan of education in his imaginary college.

But, the truth is, that the knowledge of external nature, and the sciences which that knowledge requires or includes, are not the great or the frequent business of the human mind. Whether we provide for action or conversation, whether we wish to be useful or pleasing, the first requisite is the religious and moral knowledge of right and and wrong; the next is an acquaintance with the history of mankind, and with those examples which may be said to embody truth, and prove by events the reasonableness of opinions. Prudence and Justice are virtues and excellencies of all times and of all places; we are perpetually moralists, but we are geometricians only by chance. Our intercourse with intellectual nature is necessary; our speculations upon

matter are voluntary, and at leisure. Physiological learning is of such rare emergency that one may know another half his life, without being able to estimate his skill in hydrostatics or astronomy; but, his moral and prudential character immediately appears.

Those authors, therefore, are to be read at schools that supply most axioms of prudence, most principles of moral truth, and most materials for conversation; and, these purposes are best served by poets, orators, and historians.

Let me not be censured for this digression, as pedantic or paradoxical; for, if I have Milton against me, I have Socrates on my side. It was his labor to turn philosophy from the study of nature to speculations upon life; but, the innovators whom I oppose are turning off attention from life to nature. They seem to think that we are placed here to watch the growth of plants, or the motions of the stars. Socrates was rather of opinion that what we had to learn was, how to do good, and avoid evil.

Οτ'λι τοι εν μεγαροισι κακον'λ' αγαθον τετυκται.

Of institutions, we may judge by their effects. From this wonder-working academy, I do not know that there ever proceeded any man very eminent for knowledge: its only genuine product, I believe, is a small history of poetry, written in Latin, by his nephew, Philips, of which, perhaps, none of my readers has ever heard.*

That in his school, as in every thing else which he undertook, he labored with great diligence, there is no reason for doubting. One part of his method deserves general imitation. He was careful to instruct his scholars in religion. Every Sunday was spent upon theology; of which he dictated a short system, gathered from the writers that were then fashionable in the Dutch universities.

He set his pupils an example of hard study and spare diet; only now and then he allowed himself to pass a day of festivity and indulgence with some gay gentlemen of Gray's Inn."

To these disparaging remarks we add a few sensible comments, by Rev. John Mitford, in his elegantly written life, prefixed to Pickering's Aldine edition of Milton's Poetical Works.

"The system of education which he adopted was deep and comprehensive; it promised to teach science with language, or rather, to make the study of languages subservient to the acquisition of scientific knowledge. Dr. Johnson has severely censured this method of instruction, but with arguments that might not unsuccessfully be met.

* We may be sure, at least, that Dr. Johnson had never seen the book he speaks of; for it is entirely composed in English, though its title begins with two Latin words, "Theatrum Poetarum; or, a complete Collection of the Poets, &c.," a circumstance that probably misled the biographer of Milton.

The plan recommended by the authority of Milton seems to be chiefly liable to objection, from being too extensive; and, while it makes authors of all ages contribute to the development of science, it, of course, must reject that careful selection, which can alone secure the cultivation of the taste. We may also reply to Johnson that, although all men are not designed to be astronomers, or geometricians, a knowledge of the principles on which the sciences are built, and the reasonings by which they are conducted, not only forms the most exact discipline which the mind can undergo, giving to it comprehension and vigor; but, is the only solid basis on which an investigation of the laws of nature can be conducted, or those arts improved that tend to the advantage of society, and the happiness of mankind.

Johnson says, we are not placed here to watch the planets, or the motion of the stars, but to do good. But, good is done in various ways, according to opportunities offered, and abilities conferred; a man whose natural disposition, or the circumstances of whose education lead to pursue astronomical discoveries, or the sublime speculations of geometry, is emphatically doing good to others, as he is extending the boundaries of knowledge, and to himself, as he is directing the energies of his mind to subjects of the most exalted contemplation."

Having, in the foregoing extract from Dr. Johnson, introduced an ungenerous fling of that great but prejudiced writer against the patriotism of JOHN MILTON, because, in the absence of any other opportunity of being equally useful to the cause in which his heart was enlisted, and until he was summoned by the parliament of England and its great Protector, "to address the whole collective body of people, cities, states, and councils of the wise and eminent, through the wide expanse of anxious and listening Europe," he saw fit to employ his great abilities in illustrating, by pen and example, the true principles and method of a generous and thorough education, "the only genuine source of political and individual liberty,—the only true safeguard of states," and to defend the cause of civil and religious freedom by his publications,—we will let the great champion of the commonwealth of England speak for himself, and refresh the patriotism of our own times by a few of his burning words, uttered over two hundred years ago in his "*Defensio Secunda pro Populo Anglicano.*"

"But against this dark array of long received opinions, superstitions, obloquy, and fears, which some dread even more than the enemy himself, the English had to contend; and all this under the light of better information, and favored by an impulse from above, they overcame with such singular enthusiasm and bravery, that, great as were the numbers engaged in the contest, the grandeur of conception and loftiness of spirit which were universally displayed, merited for each individual more than a mediocrity of fame; and Britain, which was formerly styled

the hot bed of tyranny, will hereafter deserve to be celebrated for endless ages, as a soil most genial to the growth of liberty. During the mighty struggle, no anarchy, no licentiousness was seen; no illusions of glory, no extravagant emulation of the ancients inflamed them with a thirst for ideal liberty; but the rectitude of their lives, and the sobriety of their habits, taught them the only true and safe road to real liberty, and they took up arms only to defend the sanctity of the laws and the rights of conscience.

Relying on the divine assistance, they used every honorable exertion to break the yoke of slavery; of the praise of which, though I claim no share to myself, yet I can easily repel any charge which may be adduced against me, either of want of courage or want of zeal. For though I did not participate in the toils or dangers of the war, yet I was at the same time engaged in a service not less hazardous to myself, and more beneficial to my fellow citizens, nor, in the adverse turns of our affairs, did I ever betray any symptoms of pusilanimity and dejection, or show myself more afraid than became me of malice or of death; for since from my youth I was devoted to the pursuits of literature, and my mind had always been stronger than my body, I did not court the labors of a camp, in which any common person would have been of more service than myself, but resorted to that employment in which my exertions were likely to be of most avail. Thus, with the better part of my frame I contributed as much as possible to the good of my country, and to the success of the glorious cause in which we were engaged; and I thought if God willed the success of such glorious achievements, it was equally agreeable to his will that there should be others by whom those achievements should be recorded with dignity and elegance; and that the truth which had been defended by arms, should also be defended by reason, which is the best and only legitimate means of defending it. Hence, while I applaud those who were victorious in the field, I will not complain of the province which was assigned me, but rather congratulate myself upon it and thank the Author of all good for having placed me in a station which may be an object of envy to others rather than of regret to myself.

I am far from wishing to make any vain or arrogant comparisons, or to speak ostentatiously of myself; but, in a cause so great and glorious, and particularly on an occasion when I am called by the general suffrage to defend the very defenders of that cause, I can hardly refrain from assuming a more lofty and swelling tone than the simplicity of an exordium may seem to justify: and as much as I may be surpassed in the powers of eloquence and copiousness of diction, by the illustrious orators of antiquity, yet the subject of which I treat was never surpassed in any age, in dignity or in interest. It has excited such general and such ardent expectation, that I imagine myself not in the forum or on the rostra, surrounded only by the people of Athens or of Rome, but about to address in this as in my former defence, the whole collective body of people, cities, states, and councils of the wise and eminent, through the wide expanse of anxious and listening Europe. I seem to survey, as from a towering height, the far extended tracts of sea and land, and innumerable crowds of spectators, betraying in their looks the liveliest, and sensations the most congenial with my own. Here I behold the stout and manly prowess of the German, disdaining servitude; there the generous and lively impetuosity of the French; on this side, the calm and stately valor of the Spaniard; on that, the composed and wary magnanimity of the Italian. Of all the lovers of liberty and virtue, the magnanimous and the wise, in whatever quarter they may be found, some secretly favor, others openly approve; some greet me with congratulation and applause; others who had long been proof against conviction, at last yield themselves captive to the force of truth. Surrounded by congregated multitudes, I now imagine that, from the columns of Hercules to the Indian Ocean, I behold the nations of the earth recovering that liberty which they so long had lost; and that the people of this island are transporting to other countries a plant of more beneficial qualities, and more noble growth than that which Triptolemus is reported to have carried from region to region; that they are disseminating the blessings of civilization and freedom among cities, kingdoms, and nations."

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IV. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN PRUSSIA.

SMALL NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR RURAL TEACHERS.

THE following Regulations of two of the best small (nebeusen) Normal Schools are taken from M. Cousin's "*Report on the State of Public Instruction in some of the States of Germany, and especially of Prussia.*" The author introduces them with some remarks on this class of Normal Schools in Prussia. It is no longer true that all of the smaller seminaries are private establishments.

The small Normal Schools are almost all private establishments, but the government aids and watches over them, without subjecting them to the same publicity it requires of its great schools.

The small Normal Schools differ, generally, from the large, not only in the number of pupils, which is much smaller, but above all as being nurseries of village schoolmasters for the very poorest parishes. This is their proper object; this it is which gives them so peculiar a character, so profound a utility. The great schools, it is true, furnish masters for the country as well as for the towns; and their pupils,—those at least who receive the *stipendia*, or exhibitions,—are for many years at the disposal of the government, which sends them where it likes; a right which, from the well-known rigor of the Prussian government in making all public servants work, we may be sure it exercises. But in every country there are parishes so poor, that one would hesitate to send a schoolmaster of any eminence to live in them; and yet it is precisely these miserable villages which stand in the greatest need of instruction to improve their condition. This need, then, the small Normal Schools are destined to supply. They labor for these poor and backward villages. To this their whole organization, their studies, their discipline, are to be directed. Unquestionably, the great Normal Schools of Prussia are entitled to the highest respect; but never can there be veneration enough for these humble laborers in the field of public instruction, who, as I have said, seek obscurity rather than fame; who devote themselves to the service of poverty with as much zeal as others to the pursuit of riches, since they toil for the poor alone; and who impose restraints on every personal desire and feeling, while others are excited by all the stimulants of competition. They cost scarcely any thing, and they do infinite good. Nothing is easier to establish,—but on one condition, that we find directors and pupils capable of the most disinterested, and, what is more, the most obscure devotion to the cause. Such devotion, however, can be inspired and kept alive by religion alone. Those who can consent to live for the service of men who neither know nor can appreciate them, must keep their eyes steadfastly fixed on Heaven: that witness is necessary to those who have no other. And, accordingly, we find that the authors and directors of these small schools are almost all ministers of religion, inspired by the spirit of Christian love, or men of singular virtue, fervent in the cause of popular education. In these humble institutions, every thing breathes Christian charity, ardor for the good of the people, and poverty. I shall lay before you a description of two;—one hidden in a suburb of Stettin, and the other in the village of Pyritz in Pomerania.

Stettin has a large Normal School, instituted for the training of masters

for the burgher schools. An excellent man, Mr. Bernhardt, school-councilor (*Schulrath*) in the council of the department, was the more powerfully struck by the necessity of providing for the wants of the country schools. He founded a small Normal School for this sole purpose, and placed it not in the town, but in a suburb called Lastadie; he laid down regulations for its government, which I annex nearly entire.

Small Primary Normal School of Lastadie, near Stettin.

1. This school is specially designed for poor young men who intend to become country schoolmasters, and who may, in case of need, gain a part of their subsistence by the labor of their hands.

2. Nothing is taught here but those things necessary for small and poor country parishes, which require schoolmasters who are Christians and useful men, and can afford them but a very slender recompense for their toils.

3. This school is intended to be a *Christian school*, founded in the spirit of the gospel. It aspires only to resemble a village household of the simplest kind, and to unite all its members into one family. To this end, all the pupils inhabit the same house, and eat at the same table with the masters.

4. The young men who will be admitted in preference, are such as are born and bred in the country; who know the elements of what ought to be taught in a good country school; who have a sound, straightforward understanding, and a kindly, cheerful temper. If, withal, they know any handcraft, or understand gardening, they will find opportunities for practice and improvement in it in odd hours.

5. The school of Lastadie neither can nor will enter into any competition with the great Normal Schools completely organized; on the contrary, it will strive always to keep itself within the narrow limits assigned to it.

6. The utmost simplicity ought to prevail in all the habits of the school, and, if possible, manual labor should be combined with those studies which are the main object, and which ought to occupy the greater portion of the time.

7. The course of instruction is designed to teach young people to reflect, and by exercising them in reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, to put it in their power to instruct themselves, and to form their own minds. For the humblest peasant ought to be taught to think; but to enlighten him, to make him a rational and intelligent being, does not mean to make him learned. "God willeth that all men be enlightened, and that they come to the knowledge of the truth."

8. The instruction ought to have a direct connection with the vocation of the students, and to include only the most essential part of the instruction given in the great Normal Schools.

9. The objects of instruction are—religion, the German language, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing. To these are joined the first elements of geometry, easy lessons in natural history, narratives drawn from national history (particularly that of Pomerania), and geographical descriptions. The principal object, and the foundation of all education, is religion, as learned from history and the Bible. The principal books are the Bible, the psalter, and the catechism. The school of Lastadie will also strive to excite and cherish in its pupils a love of nature, and to that end will cultivate a taste for gardening and planting.

10. In treating of all these subjects, the pupils must be trained to speak in pure and accurate language; for after the knowledge of religion and of nature, there is nothing of which the children of peasants stand so much in need, as to learn to express what they know with simplicity, truth, and accuracy.

11. The students know enough, when they speak, read, and write well; when they can produce a good composition in the German tongue; when they can calculate with facility and with reflection, and when they sing well; they know enough when they are thoroughly versed in the Bible, when they possess the most essential notions of the system of that universe which they have constantly before their eyes, of that nature in the midst of which they live: they have attained much, when they are Christian, rational, and virtuous men.

12. The period of study is fixed at two years. The first year the pupils learn what they are hereafter to teach to others; besides which, they assist at the lessons the masters give to the children of the school annexed to this small Normal

School. In the second year the future teacher appears more distinctly, and from that time every thing is more and more applied to practice. They continue the whole year to practice teaching, and at the end they receive a set of rules, short and easy to understand, for the management of a school of poor country children.

13. To the school of Lastadie is joined a school of poor children, in which the young men have an opportunity of going over what they have learned, by teaching it to others, and of exercising themselves in tuition according to a fixed plan. This school consists of a single class, in order that the students may see how a good school for poor children should be composed and conducted, and how all the children may be kept employed at once.

14. The number of pupils is fixed at twelve. The pecuniary assistance they receive will depend on circumstances. The instruction is gratuitous. Six pupils inhabit each room. The master lives on the same floor. They take their simple but wholesome meals together. Servants are not wanted. The pupils do the work of the house.

15. The daily lessons begin and end with prayers and psalmody. It rests with the master to fix the hours of devotion (founded chiefly on the Bible and the book of Psalms), as well as their number. So long as the true spirit of Christianity—faith quickened by charity—shall pervade the establishment, and fill the hearts of masters and of pupils, the school will be Christian, and will form Christian teachers; and this spirit of faith and of charity will be productive of blessings to the poor and to the mass of the nation.

16. It will not, therefore, be necessary to lay down minute regulations; but practical moral training must be combined as much as possible with instruction. "The letter killeth, the spirit quickeneth." But what will it not require to imbue the whole establishment with the true spirit of Christianity, so that masters and pupils may devote themselves with their whole hearts, and for the love of God, to the children of the poor?

17. Whoever wishes to be admitted into this establishment must not be under eighteen nor above twenty years of age. He must bring the certificates of his pastor, of the authorities of his parish, and of the physician of the circle, as to his previous conduct and the state of his health. He must, moreover, have such preliminary knowledge as is to be acquired in a well-conducted country school, on Biblical history, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing. Those who join to these acquirements the principles of piano-forte or violin playing, will be preferred. The candidates for admission give notice to the director, and are examined by the members of the departmental authorities who have the care of the people's schools.

18. There is no public examination. The examination on quitting is likewise conducted by the school-councilors of the department, and the certificates of capacity are founded on this examination, according to the gradations 1, 2, 3, and are delivered by the departmental authorities.

19. As to the placing of the pupils, it is desirable that they should work some years as assistant masters, in order that they may gradually acquire the necessary experience and confidence, and may become well acquainted with children, and with the inhabitants of villages. Under this supposition, the age of admission might be conveniently fixed at sixteen; and this arrangement would be a great relief to aged schoolmasters who are become burdensome to themselves and to their parishes.

20. Particular attention is paid to singing and to horticulture; as means of ennobling and animating the public worship of God, and the general course of a country life; of providing the pupils with an agreeable recreation, and, at the same time, a useful occupation; and, further, of combating the grossness of mind and the obstinate prejudices to which uneducated husbandmen are prone.

21. All the students attend divine service in the church of Lastadie on Sundays.

22. The vacations must not exceed four weeks for the whole year: they are, at Easter, in the autumn, and at Christmas.

23. The establishment has no other revenues than what it owes to the bounty of the minister of public instruction. These funds are employed,—

1. In maintaining the poorest students.
2. In indemnifying the assistant masters of singing and gardening.

3. In paying for the school tuition.
4. In paying the expenses of lodging the students.
5. In lighting and warming the school-room and the two lodging-rooms.
6. In extraordinary expenses.

The expense of the meals taken at noon and evening, in common, is also chiefly defrayed from these grants; the students, however, contribute a little from their own means.

The school of Lastadie pays the head master from its own resources.

May this establishment (concludes Mr. Bernhardt), which owes its existence to such fervent charity, not be deprived of that blessing, without which it can do nothing!

Assuredly there is not a virtuous heart which does not unite its prayers with those of the worthy and benevolent councilor.

The second small Normal School of this description was founded in 1824, in honor of Otto, bishop of Bamberg, who introduced Christianity into Pomerania, having baptized 4000 Pomeranians in 1124, near the fountain of Pyritz. When the minister of public instruction granted the license for its establishment, he made it a condition that the students should be instructed in agriculture, not merely as a recreation, but as essential to their destination; that they should be bound to study gardening, the cultivation of fruit-trees, and of silk-worms. The special superintendence of this house is intrusted to the pastor of the place. The regulations are as follows:—they resemble those of Lastadie in many respects, but go into great detail, and are perhaps still more austere as to discipline.

Rules of the small Normal School of Pyritz, in Pomerania.

I

1. The purpose of this endowment is to give to every pupil the training and instruction suitable for a good and useful country schoolmaster: this, however, can only be done by the union of Christian piety with a fundamental knowledge of his vocation, and with good conduct in the household and in the school.

2. Piety is known—
By purity of manners;
By sincerity in word and deed;
By love of God and of his word;
By love of our neighbor;
By willing obedience to superiors and masters;
By brotherly harmony among the pupils;
By active participation in the pious exercises of the house, and of public worship;
By respect for the king, our sovereign, by unshaken fidelity to our country, by uprightness of heart and of conduct.

3. A thorough knowledge of the duties of a teacher are acquired—
By long study of the principles and elements;
By learning what is necessary and really useful in that vocation;
By habits of reflection and of voluntary labor;
By constant application to lessons;
By incessant repetition and practice;
By regular industry and well-ordered activity; according to this commandment, "Pray and work."

4. Good conduct in the house and the school requires—
A good distribution and employment of time;
Inflexible order, even in what appears petty and insignificant;
Silence in hours of study and work;
Quietness in the general demeanor;
Care and punctuality in the completion of all works commanded;
Decent manners toward every person and in every place: decorum at meals;
Respect for the property of the school, and for all property of others;
The utmost caution with regard to fire and light;

Cleanliness of person and of clothing;

Simplicity in dress, and in the manner of living; according to the golden rule, "Every thing in its time and place. Let things have their course. Provide things honest in the sight of all men."—Rom. xii. 16, 17.*

II.

1. All the pupils inhabit one house and one room; for they must live in union, and form one family of brothers, loving one another.

2. The whole order of the house rests on the master of the school; he lives in the midst of the pupils; he has the immediate superintendence of them, of their conduct, and of their labors. He ought to be to those under his care what a father of a Christian family is in his household.

He is responsible for the accounts of the establishment, the registers, the result of the quarterly examinations, and for the formation of the necessary lists. He has the special care of the provisions, the rooms, the library, the furniture. He is responsible to the school-administration for good order in every department.

3. The oldest and most intelligent of the students assists the master. He is called the master's assistant. He must take care—

That every one in the room under his care rises and goes to bed at the appointed moment;

That nobody, without the master's permission, leave the house, smoke, or carry candles into the passages or the loft;

That no one wantonly injure the windows, doors, or furniture, or throw any thing out of the windows;

That the utmost cleanliness be observed in the sitting-room, the passage, and the sleeping-room;

That all clothes, linen, books, &c., be in their places;

That no noise be made in going up and down stairs, or in going to the children's school.

It is his especial business to help his companions in the preparation of their lessons, to hear them repeat, to prepare the exercises for the master, and to assist him as far as he can in all his business. He ought to be to his fellow-students what a good elder brother is to his younger brothers and sisters. He is chosen, on the master's recommendation, by the school-committee.

4. The humbler sort of household work, such as cleaning and putting in order the rooms, dusting the furniture, fetching water, cleaving wood, &c., is done by the pupils, who serve a week in rotation. The time of service is prolonged by order of the master, in case of negligence.

5. The order of the day is as follows:—

In winter at five, in summer at half past four in the morning, at a given signal, all the pupils must rise, make their beds, and dress.

Half an hour after rising, that is, at half past five in winter, and five in summer, all the pupils must be assembled in the school-room. The assistant first pronounces the morning benediction, and each pupil then occupies himself in silence till six. If any repetitions stand over from the preceding day, they must be heard now. After this, breakfast.

In winter, as well as in summer, the lessons begin at six o'clock, and last till a quarter before eight. Then the students go with their master to the children's school, attached to the Normal School, where they remain till ten, either listening, or assisting in teaching some small classes; or they may be employed in their own studies at home.

To these employments succeeds an hour of recreation, and then an hour's lesson in the establishment.

At noon, the students assemble in the master's room, where they find a frugal but wholesome meal, consisting of vegetables, meat, and fish, at the rate of two thalers (six shillings) a month.

The time which remains, till one o'clock, may be passed in music, gardening, and walking.

* I do not happen to have the French version of the Bible. The texts as quoted by M. Cousin do not agree with those in our version. Ver. 11, is rendered by Luther, *Schicket euch in die Zeit*. Adapt yourselves to the time; which is not given in our version. The next clause above, I find neither in his version nor in ours.

In the afternoon, from one till three, while the master is teaching in the town school, the pupils accompany him, as in the morning. From three till five, lessons.

The succeeding hours, from five till seven, are, according to the seasons, employed in bodily exercises, or in the school-room in quiet occupations. At seven they assemble at a simple cold supper.

From seven to eight they practice singing and the violin; then repetitions or silent study till ten, when all go to bed.

Two afternoons of each week are free, and are usually spent in long walks. The time from four to six, or from five to seven, is devoted to the practice of music.

On Sundays or holidays all the pupils must attend divine service in the church of the town, and assist in the choir. The remainder of these days may be passed by every one as he pleases: in the course of the morning, however, the students must write down the heads of the sermon (the text, the main subject, the distribution), and in the evening must give an account of the manner in which they have spent the day.

Every evening, as well as on the mornings of Sundays and holidays, a portion of time is spent in meditation in common.

A few Sundays after the setting in of winter, and after the festival of St. John (May 6th), the students partake of the Lord's Supper, in company with their masters.

Every student, from the time of his admission, must solemnly engage (in token of which he gives his hand to the master and signs his name) to follow the rules of the house, which may be summed up in these three principal maxims:—

1. Order in behavior and in work, combined with the utmost simplicity in all things; to the end that the students who belong to the poorer classes, and whose destiny it is to be teachers of the poor, may willingly continue in that condition, and may not learn to know wants and wishes which they will not, and ought not to have the power of satisfying. For this reason, they must be their own servants.

2. As to the course of instruction, the repetitions must always be heard by the forwardest pupils. The pupils must be made, as much as possible, to teach each other what they have learned of the master, in order that they may perfect themselves in the art of teaching.

3. Piety and the fear of God should be the soul of their little community, but a true Christian piety, a fear of God according to knowledge and light, so that the pupils may do all to the glory of God, and may lead a simple, humble, and serene life, resigned and contented in labor and travail, according to the exhortation of the Apostle:

"Fulfill ye my joy, that ye be like-minded, having the same love, being of one accord, of one mind. Let nothing be done through strife or vain-glory; but in lowliness of mind let each esteem other better than themselves."—*Philip.* ii. 2, 3.

"And as many as walk according to this rule, peace be on them, and mercy!" —*Galat.* vi. 16.

I abstain from all comment on these two sets of regulations, which seem to have been dictated by the spirit of St. Vincent de Paule. The greater number of the small Normal Schools of Prussia are founded and governed in the same spirit. All rest on the sacred basis of Christianity. But beneath their simple lowly exterior we trace a taste for instruction, a feeling for nature, a love of music, which take away every vestige of coarseness, and give these modest institutions a character of liberality. Undoubtedly all this is the offspring of the national manners, and of the genius of Germany; yet Christian charity might transplant a good deal of it into our France; and I should esteem myself happy, if the regulations of the little schools of Lastadie and of Pyritz were to fall into the hands of some worthy ecclesiastic, some good curate or village pastor, who would undertake such an apostolic mission as this.

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL

AT POTSDAM.

THE following account of one of the best primary Normal Schools of Prussia is abridged from the report of M. Stintz, the director of the establishment.

1. DIRECTION AND INSPECTION.

The Normal School and its annexed school are placed under a director or principal, subordinate to the royal school board of the province of Brandenburg, at Berlin, and to the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs.

The last named authority lays down the principles to be followed in this school, as in all other public schools; exacts an account of all important matters, such as the examination of the masters, and any change in the fundamental plan of the studies; and receives every year, through the medium of the royal school board, a detailed report, prepared by the director of the school.

The school board is charged with the special inspection of the Normal School: it must watch its progress, and from time to time send commissioners to make inquiries on the spot. It examines also and approves the plan of studies presented every half year, and decides on all questions submitted to the consistory.

The director should superintend the whole establishment, observe and direct the master and servants, make reports to the superior authorities, carry on the correspondence, &c.

2. BUILDING.

The Normal School, situated near the canal and the Berlin gate, is a large edifice two stories high, with a frontage of 127 feet, and considerable back buildings, which, joined to the main building, form a square within which is a tolerably spacious court. The whole comprehends:

1. A family residence for the director or principal, and another for a master;
2. Three apartments for three unmarried masters
3. An apartment for the steward and his servants, and sufficient convenience for household business and stowage;
4. A dining-room for the pupils, which serves also for the writing and drawing class;
5. An organ-room, in which the music lessons are given, the examinations take place, and the morning and evening prayers are said;
6. Two rooms for the scientific instruction of the pupils;
7. Four rooms for the classes of the annexed school;
8. Five rooms of different sizes, and two dormitories for the pupils;
9. Two infirmaries;
10. A wash-house;
11. Two cabinets of natural history;
13. Granaries, cellars, wood-houses, &c.

3. REVENUES.

The annual income of this establishment amounts to $6000, which is

derived from the state fund and the tuition of the pupils, both of the Normal School, and the annexed primary model school.

4. INVENTORY.

The establishment contains the following articles:

1. Things required in the economy of the house, kitchen utensils, tables, forms, &c.;
2. Sufficient and suitable furniture, consisting of chests of drawers, tables, forms, chairs and boxes, for the class of the Normal School, and the school for practice, and for the masters' rooms, &c. There is also for the poorer pupils, a certain number of bedsteads with bedding;
3. A considerable library for the masters and pupils, as well as a good collection of maps and globes for the teaching of geography;
4. A tolerably complete collection of philosophical instruments;
5. A collection of minerals, presented to the establishment by Council lor Von Turck;
6. A collection of stuffed birds, and other objects in natural history;
7. The instruments most required in mathematical instruction;
8. Complete drawing apparatus;
9. A very considerable collection of music;
10. A very good organ, a piano forte, seven harpsichords, and many wind and string instruments.

5. DOMESTIC ECONOMY AND MAINTENANCE OF THE PUPILS.

To support about eighty pupils, and to preserve cleanliness in the house, a steward has been appointed, whose duties are specified in a contract renewable every year.

The food of the pupils is good and wholesome, which is proved by the state of their health. Some parents think it needful to send their children eatables, or money to purchase them. They are wrong, for the children have no such want; on the contrary, so far from being advantageous, these presents only serve to take away their appetite at meals, and to make them dainty and gluttonous. The orphans, and those whose parents are too poor to send them any thing, are exactly those who are the strongest and healthiest.

The director is almost always present at meals, to be sure of the goodness of the food, and to prevent any irregularity in the serving up.

Sick pupils are sent to the infirmary, and are attended by the physician or surgeon of the establishment.

6. MASTERS.

There are six masters attached to this establishment in which they live, besides the director, who instructs in religion, in the principles of education, of training, of the art of teaching, and of the methods of study.

7. NUMBER OF PUPILS.

The number of pupils is fixed by the regulation at from seventy to eighty, and is now seventy-eight, of whom seventy-two live in the establishment; the other six have obtained a license to remain with their parents in order to lessen the expense of their maintenance.

This number is determined not only by the building, but also by the wants of the province. Brandenburg contains about 1500 masterships of primary schools, in town and country. Supposing that out of a hundred places, two become vacant every year, there will be at least thirty masters required for this province; but these places for the most part pay so badly, that they are compelled to be content with but moderately qualified masters, who, perhaps, have not been educated at a Normal School, and who sometimes follow some trade or handicraft. If, then, the Normal School contains seventy-eight pupils who form three classes, one of which

quits annually, it will furnish each year twenty-six candidates, which about meets the wants of the country.

8. WHAT IS REQUIRED OF APPLICANTS FOR ADMISSION.

Once a year, at Michaelmas, twenty-six pupils are admitted. Of these are required—

1. Good health and freedom from all bodily infirmity. (Obstacles to admission would be, exceeding smallness of stature, short-sightedness, or a delicate chest;)
2. The age of seventeen complete;
3. The evangelical religion;
4. A moral and religious spirit, and a conduct hitherto blameless;
5. A good disposition and talents, among which are a good voice and a musical ear;
6. To be prepared for the studies of the Normal School by the culture of the heart and mind; to have received a good religious education (which shall include a knowledge of the Bible and biblical history;) to be able to read; to know the grammar of the German language, of composition, arithmetic, the principles of singing, the piano forte and violin.

A written request for admission must be sent to the director, by June at the latest, accompanied with—

1. A certificate of birth and baptism;
2. A school certificate, and one of good conduct;
3. A police certificate, stating the condition of the young man or his father, or else a written declaration from the father or guardian, stating the time within which he can and will pay the annual sum fixed by law; *i. e.* 48 thaler (6*l.* 16*s.*)

The director enters the petitioners on a list, and in the month of June or July invites them, by letter, to present themselves at the examination which takes place in July or August.

The examination is conducted partly in writing, and partly *viva voce*.

As a means of ascertaining the acquirements of the candidates, and of judging of their memory, their style, and their moral dispositions, an anecdote or parable is related in a clear and detailed manner, summing up and repeating the principal points, after which they produce it in writing, with observations and reflections.

The oral examination usually includes only religion, reading, grammar, logical exercises, and arithmetic.

They are also examined in singing, the piano forte and the violin.

After the examination, the talents and merits of the respective candidates are conscientiously weighed and compared, in a conference of the masters. The choice being made, it is submitted to the sanction of the royal school board, with a detailed report of the result of the examination.

At the end of some weeks the candidates are informed of the decision; their admission is announced, or the reasons which prevent it stated; with either advice to give up their project entirely, or suggestions relative to their further preparation.

The admitted candidate is bound to bring, besides his clothes and books, among which must be the Bible and the prayer-book used in the establishment, half a dozen shirts, six pair of stockings, a knife and fork, and, generally, a bedstead with all requisite bedding.

He is also bound to sign, on his entrance, the following engagement to the director, with the consent of his father or guardian.

COPY OF THE ENGAGEMENT WITH THE DIRECTOR TO BE SIGNED BY THE PUPIL ON HIS ENTRANCE.

"I, the undersigned, N——— of N———, by these presents, bind myself, conformably with the ordinance of the royal minister of public in-

struction, and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, dated February 28th, 1825, with the consent of my father (or guardian) who signs this with me, ... to place myself during three years after my leaving the Normal School, at the disposal of the king's government; and consequently not to subscribe any thing contrary to this engagement; or, in such case, to refund to the Normal School the expenses incurred by the state for my instruction, namely:

'1. Ten thaler for each half year passed in the Normal School, and for the instruction received in this period of time;

'2. The whole amount of the grants and exhibitions I may have received;

'Potsdam, the &c."

The applicant rejected, but not advised to choose another course, is summoned to a fresh examination the following year.

The number of applicants having been for some time past very great, the author of this report thinks it his duty to warn parents, (especially schoolmasters,) whose children do not evince talent and have not a decided taste for teaching, not to suffer them to lose the precious time which they might employ with much more success in some other career.

This respects chiefly the poor youths who can have no claim to the exhibitions, unless they give proofs of an extraordinary capacity, from which the state and society may derive a real advantage.

The Normal School is by no means designed for those who are unfit for any business, and think, if they can read and write, they are capable of becoming schoolmasters. This notion is so deeply rooted, that you hear fathers declare with all the simplicity in the world—"My son is too delicate to learn a business," or "I don't know what to make of my son, but I think of getting him into the Normal School." We reply to such, that the pupils of the Normal School must, on the contrary, be sound both in body and mind, and able to brave the toils and troubles of a career as laborious as it is honorable.

Much neglect unfortunately still exists on a subject which is of the highest importance,—the methodical preparation of these young men for the calling it is desired they should embrace.

A false direction is often given to their preliminary studies. A young man is believed to be well prepared for the Normal School, if he have passed the limits of elementary instruction, and if he have acquired a greater mass of knowledge than other pupils. It frequently happens, however, that candidates who come strongly recommended from school, pass the examination without credit, or are even rejected.

The most immediate and the most important aim of all instruction, is to train up and complete the Man; to ennoble his heart and character; to awaken the energies of his soul, and to render him not only disposed, but able, to fulfil his duties. In this view alone can knowledge and talents profit a man; otherwise, instruction, working upon sterile memory and talents purely mechanical, can be of no high utility. In order that the teacher, and particularly the master of the primary school, may make his pupils virtuous and enlightened men, it is necessary he should be so himself. Thus, that the education of a Normal School, essentially practical, may completely succeed, the young candidate must possess nobleness and purity of character in the highest possible degree, the love of the true and the beautiful, an active and penetrating mind, the utmost precision and clearness in narration and style.

Such above all things are the qualities we require of young men. If they have reached this state of moral and intellectual advancement by the study of history, geography, mathematics, &c., and if they have acquired additional knowledge on these various branches, we can not but give them applause; but, we frankly repeat, we dispense with all these

acquirements, provided they possess that *formal instruction* of which we have just spoken, since it is very easy for them to obtain in the Normal School that *material instruction* in which they are deficient.

It is nevertheless necessary to have some preliminary notions, seeing that the courses at the Normal School are often a continuation of foregone studies, and that certain branches could not be there treated in their whole extent, if they were wholly unknown to the young men when they entered. We have already mentioned the branches they should be most particularly prepared in; but this subject being of the greatest interest, we shall conclude this chapter with some suggestions on the plan to be followed.

I. *Religion.* To awaken and fortify the religious spirit and the moral sentiments. For this purpose the histories and parables of the Bible are very useful. Frequent reading and accurate explanation of the Bible are necessary. The pupils should be able to explain the articles of faith, and the most important duties, as laid down in the catechism. Many sentences, whole chapters and parables from the Holy Scriptures, hymns and verses, should be known by heart; they should be able to give answers on the most interesting points of the history of the church and the Reformation.

II. As to *general history*, there is no need of its being circumstantially or profoundly known; but the young men should be able to refer with exactness to those historical facts which may be profitably used to form the heart. to exercise and rectify the judgment, to infuse a taste for all that is grand and noble, true and beautiful.

III. *Geometry* (the study of forms) combined with *elementary drawing*, the one as a basis for instruction in writing and drawing, and as a preparation for the mathematics; the other to exercise the hand, the eye and the taste.

IV. *Writing.* The copies by Henrich and Henning only ought to be used, which, after long practice, give and preserve a beautiful hand, even when writing fast and much.

V. *Logical Exercises.* These ought to tend to produce in young minds clearness and accuracy of ideas, justness of judgment, and, by consequence, precision and facility in oral and written explanations.

VI. *Reading.* When once the pupil can read fluently, he must be taught to give emphasis to his reading, and to feel what he reads. He should be habituated to recite, and even gradually to analyze the phrases and periods he has just read, to change the order, and express the same idea in different words.—to put, for example, poetry into prose, &c. Thus these exercises serve at the same time to teach him to think, and to speak. We advise also that he be made to declaim pieces he has learnt by heart.

VII. *German language and composition.* Language should be regarded and treated on the one hand as a means of *formal instruction*,—as practical logic; and on the other as an indispensable object of *material instruction.*

VIII. *Arithmetic.* This does not include either methods of abstruse calculation or practical arithmetic. Nothing more is required of the pupil than to use figures without difficulty, and to calculate in his head.

IX. *Singing, piano forte, violin.* The formation of the voice and ear. Skill and firmness in producing sounds. Exercises in elementary singing. Psalmody.

For the piano forte and violin, as much dexterity as can be expected, and a good fingering for the former instrument.

If these suggestions have the effect of inducing a conscientious master to train well even a few young candidates, they will have attained their object.

The enumeration of a great number of works from which assistance may be derived, at least facilitates the choice.

9. OUTWARD CONDITION OF THE PUPILS; AND THE NATURE OF THEIR CONNECTION WITH THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

If the young men have no relations at Potsdam who can answer for their good conduct and application, they are all, without exception, bound to live in the Normal School, and to take their food there, paying to the director the sum of twelve thaler (1*l.* 16*s.*) per quarter.

Each pupil costs the establishment 100 thaler a year. In paying, therefore, the yearly sum of forty-eight thaler, required by law, he defrays only half his expenses. A bursar is entitled to lodging, firing, board, candles, and instruction. A half bursar pays only twenty-four thaler a year. He has then only to buy his clothes, to pay for his washing, his books, paper, pens, ink, and whatever is wanted for music and drawing.

With respect to lodging, they are distributed into five large rooms, with stoves, appropriated to the pupils; and they live and work, to the number of eight, twelve, or sixteen, in one of these rooms, which is furnished with tables, chairs, drawers, book-cases, bureaus, and piano fortes. Their beds and chests are put in two dormitories. Each sitting-room, each bed-room, has its inspector, chosen from among the pupils, who is responsible for its order. It is the duty of one of the pupils belonging to the chamber to arrange and dust the furniture every day. Neglect in the fulfilment of his office is punished by the continuance of it.

So long as the pupils remain at the Normal School, and behave with propriety, they are exempt from military service.

All the pupils are bound to pursue the course of the Normal School for three years; their acquirements and instruction would be incomplete if they did not conform to this regulation.

10. EDUCATION OF THE PUPILS BY MEANS OF DISCIPLINE AND OF INSTRUCTION.

In the education of the masters of primary schools the wants of the people must be consulted.

A religious and moral education is the first want of a people. Without this, every other education is not only without real utility, but in some respects dangerous. If, on the contrary, religious education has taken firm root, intellectual education will have complete success, and ought on no account to be withheld from the people, since God has endowed them with all the faculties for acquiring it, and since the cultivation of all the powers of man, secures to him the means of reaching perfection, and, through that, supreme happiness.

To sustain and confirm the religious and moral spirit of our pupils, we adopt various means. We take particular care that they go to church every Sunday: they are not compelled to attend exclusively the parish church of the Normal School; but on the Monday they are required to name the church they went to, and to give an account of the sermon. Every Sunday, at six o'clock in the morning, one of the oldest pupils reads, in turn, a sermon, in the presence of all the pupils and one master. At the beginning and end they sing a verse of a psalm, accompanied on the organ. A prayer, about ten or fifteen minutes long, is offered up every morning and night, by one of the masters. They begin with singing one or two verses; then follows a religious address, or the reading of a chapter from the Bible, and, in conclusion, another verse.

To obtain a moral influence over the pupils, we consider their individual position, their wants, and their conduct. Much aid in this respect is derived from the weekly conferences of the masters, and particularly from the quarterly report (*Censur*) of the pupils, or judgment on the applica-

tion, progress, and conduct of each. This is written in a particular book called the report-book (*Censurbuch*,) and forms the basis of the certificates delivered to the pupils on their leaving the establishment; as well as of private advice given at the time.

The means of correction adopted, are, warnings, exhortations, reprimands; at first privately, then at the conference of the masters; lastly, before all the pupils. If these means do not suffice, recourse is had to confinement, to withdrawing the *stipendia* or exhibitions, and in the last resort to expulsion. But we endeavor, as much as possible, to prevent these punishments, by keeping up a friendly intercourse with the pupils, by distinguishing the meritorious, by striving to arouse a noble emulation, and to stir up in their hearts the desire of gaining esteem and respect by irreproachable conduct.

It is on the interest given to the lessons that especially depends the application of study out of class. Certain hours of the day are consecrated to private study, and each master by turns takes upon himself to see that quiet is maintained in the rooms, and that all are properly occupied.

At the end of each month, the last lesson, whatever the branch of instruction, is a recapitulation, in the form of an examination, on the subjects treated of in the course of the month.

As to the branches of knowledge taught, and the course of study, the following is the fundamental plan:

In the first year *formal instruction* predominates: in the second, *material instruction;* in the third, *practical instruction.** The pupils having then about ten lessons a week to give in the annexed school, (lessons for which they must be well prepared,) follow fewer courses in the school.

Our principal aim, in each kind of instruction, is to induce the young men to think and judge for themselves. We are opposed to all mechanical study and servile transcripts. The masters of our primary schools must possess intelligence themselves, in order to be able to awaken it in their pupils; otherwise, the state would doubtless prefer the less expensive schools of Bell and Lancaster.

We always begin with the elements, because we are compelled to admit, at least at present, pupils whose studies have been neglected; and because we wish to organize the instruction in every branch, so as to afford the pupils a model and guide in the lessons which they will one day be called upon to give.

With respect to *material* instruction, we regard much more the solidity, than the extent, of the acquirements. This not only accords with the intentions of the higher authorities, but reason itself declares that solidity of knowledge alone can enable a master to teach with efficacy, and carry forward his own studies with success. Thus, young men of delicate health are sometimes exempted from certain branches of study, such as the mathematics, thorough bass, and natural philosophy.

Gardening is taught in a piece of ground before the Nauen gate; and swimming, in the swimming-school established before the Berlin gate, during the proper season, from seven to nine in the evening.

Practical instruction we consider of the greatest importance.

All the studies and all the knowledge of our pupils would be fruitless, and the Normal School would not fulfil the design of its institution, if the young teachers were to quit the establishment without having already methodically applied what they had learned, and without knowing by experience what they have to do, and how to set about it.

* *Formal instruction* consists of studies calculated to open the mind, and to inculcate on the pupils good methods in every branch, and the feeling of what is the true vocation of a primary teacher. *Material instruction*, or more positive instruction, occupies the second year, in which the pupils go through the special studies of every solid kind, much of which they may never be called upon to teach. *Practical instruction*, or instruction in the art of teaching, occupies the third year.

To obtain this result, it is not sufficient that the younger men should see the course gone through under skillful masters, or that they should themselves occasionally give lessons to their school-fellows; they must have taught the children in the annexed school for a long time under the direction of the masters of the Normal School. It is only by familiarizing themselves with the plan of instruction for each particular branch, and by teaching each for a certain time themselves, that they can acquire the habit of treating it with method.

11. ANNEXED SCHOOL.

The annexed school was founded in 1825, and received gratuitously from 160 to 170 boys. The higher authorities, in granting considerable funds for the establishment of this school, have been especially impelled by the benevolent desire of securing to the great mass of poor children in this town the means of instruction, and of relieving the town from the charge of their education.

The town authorities agreed, on their part, to pay the establishment one thaler and five silber-groschen (3*s.* 6*d.*) a year for each child. On this condition we supply the children gratuitously with the books, slates, &c. which they want.

The annexed school is a primary school, which is divided into four classes, but reckons only three degrees: the second and third classes are separated from each other only for the good of the pupils, and for the purpose of affording more practice to the young masters.

The first class, with the two above it, forms a good and complete elementary school; while the highest presents a class of a burgher school, where the most advanced pupils of the Normal School, who will probably be one day employed in the town schools, give instruction to the cleverest boys of the annexed school.

The most advanced class of the students of the Normal School to be employed in the school for practice, is divided into five *cœtus*, or divisions, each composed of five or six pupils. Each division teaches two subjects only during two months and a half, and then passes on to two other subjects; so that each has practical exercise in all the matters taught, in succession.

As far as possible, all the classes of the school for practice attend to the same subject at the same hour. The master of the Normal School, who has prepared the young masters beforehand, is present during the lesson. He listens, observes, and guides them during the lessons, and afterward communicates his observations and his opinion of the manner in which the lesson was given. Each class has a journal for each branch of instruction, in which what has been taught is entered after the lesson. As far as possible, the young master who is to give the next lesson, witnesses that of his predecessor. By this means, and particularly through the special direction of the whole practical instruction by a master of the Normal School, the connection and gradation of the lessons is completely secured.

It is requisite that every pupil of the Normal School should teach all the branches in the lowest class in succession; for the master of a primary school, however learned he may be, is ignorant of the most indispensable part of his calling, if he can not teach the elements.

12. DEPARTURE FROM THE NORMAL SCHOOL; EXAMINATIONS; CERTIFICATE AND APPOINTMENT.

The pupils quit the Normal School after having pursued the course for three years; for the lengthening of their stay would be an obstacle to the reception of new pupils.

But they must first go through an examination in writing and *viva voce*,

as decreed by the ordinance of the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, of which we give an abstract:

"1. All the pupils of the primary Normal Schools in the kingdom shall go through an examination on leaving.

2. The examinations shall be conducted by all the masters of the Normal School, on all the subjects taught in the house, in the presence and under the direction of one or more commissioners delegated by the provincial school board.

3. Every pupil, before leaving, shall give a probationary lesson, to show to what degree he possesses the art of teaching.

4. After the examination is over, and exact accounts of the pupils leaving are given by the director and all the masters, a certificate shall be delivered to each pupil, signed by the director, the masters and the commissioners.

5. This certificate shall specify the knowledge and talents of the pupil; it shall state whether he possesses the art of teaching, and whether his moral character renders him fit for the office of primary schoolmaster. It shall include, besides, a general opinion of his character and attainments, expressed by one of the terms, 'excellent,' 'good,' 'passable,' and answering to the numbers 1, 2, 3.

6. This certificate only gives the pupil a provisional power of receiving an appointment for three years. After that time he must undergo a new examination at the Normal School. But any pupil who, on leaving the establishment, obtained number 1, and has, in the course of the three first years, been teacher in a public school, shall not have to pass another examination. No others can take a situation, except provisionally.

7. These new examinations shall not take place at the same time as those of the pupils who are leaving; but, like those, always in the presence and under the direction of the commissioners of the school board.

8. In the first examinations the principal object is, to ascertain if the pupils have well understood the lessons of the Normal School, and learned to apply them; in the last, the only object of inquiry is the practical skill of the candidate.

9. The result of this new examination shall likewise be expressed in a certificate, appended to the first, and care shall be taken to specify therein the fitness of the candidate for the profession of schoolmaster."

For which reason, the pupils on their departure receive a certificate, the first page of which describes their talents, character and morality, and the two following contain an exact account of the result of the examination on all branches of study.

Those who have not obtained appointments in the interval between the two examinations, shall present this certificate to the superintendents and school-inspectors of the places where they live, and, on leaving that place, shall demand a certificate of conduct, which they shall produce at the time of the second examination. Those who have been in situations during the three first years, shall produce certificates from their immediate superiors.

All the pupils can not be appointed immediately on their leaving the school: but a great number of them are proposed by the director for vacant places, and are sought after by the royal government, by superintendents, magistrates, &c.; so that at the end of a year we may calculate that they are all established.

M. Cousin, in his "*Report on Public Instruction in Prussia*," after publishing the foregoing account, remarks:

"I can answer for the perfect fidelity of this description of the Normal School of Potsdam.

I saw this scheme in action. The spirit which dictated the arrange-

ment and distribution of the tuition is excellent, and equally pervades all the details. The Normal course, which occupies three years, is composed, for the first year, of studies calculated to open the mind, and to inculcate on the pupils good methods in every branch, and the feeling of what is the true vocation of a primary teacher. This is what is called the *formal* instruction, in opposition to the *material* or more positive instruction of the second year, in which the pupils go through special studies of a very solid kind, and learn considerably more than they will generally be called upon to teach. The third year is entirely *practical*, and is devoted to learning the art of teaching. This is precisely the plan which I take credit to myself for having followed in the organization of the studies of the great central Normal School of Paris, for the training of masters for the royal and communal *colleges*. At Potsdam, likewise, the third year comprises the sum of the two preceding, and the pupils are already regarded as masters. In this view there is a primary school annexed to the Normal School, in which the students in their third year give lessons, under the superintendence of the masters of the Normal School. The children who attend this primary school pay, or rather the town pays for them, only four thaler (12*s*.) a year; there are 170. They are divided, according to their progress, into four classes, which are taught by the twenty or five and twenty students, or apprentice masters, in their third year, with all the ardor of youth and of a new vocation. I was present at several of these lessons, which were extremely well given. A master of the Normal School frequently attends one of the classes, and, when the lesson is finished, makes observations to the young masters, and gives them practical lessons, by which they can immediately profit.

As appears from the prospectus, the musical instruction is carried to a very high point. There are few students who have not a violin, and many of them leave the school very good organists and piano forte players. Singing is particularly cultivated. The course of instruction embraces not only a little botany, mineralogy, physical science, natural history, and zoology, but exercises in psychology and logic, which tend to give the young men the philosophy of that portion of popular education intrusted to their care. I was present at several lessons; among others, one on history and chronology, in which, out of courtesy to me, the pupils were interrogated on the history of France, particularly during the reigns of Charles IX., and Henry III., and Henry IV.,—a period of which Protestantism is so important a feature. The young men answered extremely well, and seemed perfectly familiar with the dates and leading facts. I say nothing of the gymnastic courses, as Prussia is the classic land of those exercises.

What struck me the most was the courses, called in Germany courses of *Methodik* and *Didaktik*, as also those designated by the name of *Padagogik:* the two former intended to teach the art of tuition, the latter the more difficult art of moral education. These courses are more particularly calculated for the acting masters, who come back to perfect themselves at the Normal School; for which reason they are not entered in the table, or prospectus, which exhibits only the regular studies of the school. These courses are almost always given by the director, who also generally gives the religious instruction, which here comes in its proper place,—that is, first.

I ought to add that all the students of the school at Potsdam had a cheerful happy air, and that their manners were very good. If they brought any rusticity to the school, they had entirely lost it. I quitted the establishment highly satisfied with the students, full of esteem for the director, and of respect for a country in which the education of the people has reached such a pitch of prosperity."

PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL,

AT BRUHL.

THE Normal School at Bruhl may be regarded as a type of the establishment for teachers of the Catholic faith, as that at Potsdam is of the Protestant institutions. The following account is abridged from an annual Report of its principal, Mr. Schweitzer, a Catholic clergyman.

"The town of Bruhl stands in a beautiful plain on the left bank of the Rhine, two leagues from Koln, three from Bonn, and a short league from the river. It is surrounded by fertile fields and picturesque villages. Directly before it majestically rises the ancient Colonia, with its numerous towers and steeples, and its colossal cathedral. It bounds the view on that side: on the right, the *Siebengebirge** traces its gigantic outlines on the blue distance, and on that side presents to the eye a picture of grandeur and repose. From some neighboring hights the lover of natural beauty looks down with admiration on the plains which lie outspread before him, and the silvery luster of the majestic Rhine, which, in its ample windings, rolls peacefully along, as if it delighted to linger in these smiling regions, while two long chains of hills seem to hold this magnificent plain in their embrace. One of these chains stretches along the left bank of the Rhine, to the Eifel Mountains, and is for that reason called the *Vorgebirge*—(fore or introductory range): at the foot of this chain is Bruhl. The summit is clothed with the forest of Vill, and the undulating sides are dotted with country-houses and pretty villages, the houses of which are half hidden among fruit-trees. At the blossoming season these villages present the most delightful aspect and help to compose a picture of enchanting variety. It is not without reason, then, that Bruhl was the favorite residence of the Electoral Archbishops of Koln, and in former times this little town was far more important than it now is. At the present day Bruhl consists of only 278 houses, among which are many poor mud cottages, and contains only from fourteen to fifteen hundred inhabitants. Since it ceased to be the residence of the Electors, its inhabitants nearly all live by agriculture, and by a small trade. There are only two remarkable buildings,—the palace, which is abandoned, and the monastery. This latter building is occupied by the establishment under my care.

"The monastery was formerly the nursery of the order of Franciscan monks for the whole province of Koln. After the suppression of the order on the left bank of the Rhine, in 1807, Napoleon gave the monastery and its dependencies to the town of Bruhl, which, in 1812, granted them to Messrs. Schug and Schumacher for the establishment of a secondary and commercial school, whose existence closed in 1822. At the end of that year, the town ceded these buildings to the government, for the establishment of the primary normal school which now occupies them.

1. BUILDINGS.

"The house is built in a grand style, with three stories, and in a quadrangular form. The entrance is to the north, and leads by a small fore court,

* The cluster of seven mountains nearly opposite to Bonn.

on the one side into the convent, on the other into the church, which is handsome, light, and lofty. The high altar, of artificial marble, and the organ, are much admired. On the south side are two wings, which give the buildings a handsome and palace-like appearance. From the very entrance, the cloisters are wide, with lofty vaulted roofs, cheerful and well lighted. They run quite round the building, as do the corridors over them on the first and second stories. On the ground floor we have four rooms or halls for study, and a large and very light dining-hall, which serves also for our public meetings, for study and for prayer. Beside it, are two school-rooms, and two rooms for the steward, with kitchen, offices and servants' hall in the basement story, where the porter has also his kitchen and two rooms. The establishment has a pump, abundantly supplied with fine water, near the kitchen; a rivulet which runs under the two wings is of great importance for purposes of cleanliness.

"The director occupies the eastern side of the building on the first floor; the inspector, the left wing and a part of the southern side; the steward has the rest of that side; the right wing and the western side are inhabited by an ancient father and brother of the Franciscan order,—regarded as the last remnant of a once flourishing body, now extinct—and by the master of the school for practice. There are no rooms to the north, only corridors adjoining the church.

"The assistant masters inhabit the upper story, in which are also five hospital rooms to the south, and two large dormitories for the students to the east and west of the main building. A granary or loft, in good repair, runs over the whole of the building, and affords both steward and masters convenient stowage for their stock of grain of all kinds.

"Both masters and pupils have ample reason to be satisfied with the rooms for study and for dwelling. The masters' apartments are not handsome, it is true; other schools have better: with a little cleaning and decoration they might, however, be made very comfortable. The students' dormitories are cheerful, and better fitted up than any I have seen in any normal school; their appearance is very neat and agreeable, with the clean beds all covered alike, which can be done only where they are furnished by the establishment. This house has only one inconvenience,—violent currents of air; but these might, I think, be remedied.

"The outside of the building is as agreeable as the inside is convenient; it is situated on the prettiest side of the town, and has no communication with any other building except the palace, with which it is connected by a covered way, and by the old orangery. It has a magnificent view over a delightful country, a large kitchen-garden, a commodious court, and two flower-gardens.

"The building is of stone, and consequently very substantial; its aspect is indeed a little hoary now, but a new coat of plaster would soon give it a cheerful appearance. The roof is in good condition, and if once the building underwent a thorough repair, the whole might be kept up at a very small expense. During the past year no great repairs have been done.

2. NUMBER OF STUDENTS.

"The number of students is fixed at a hundred; at this moment there are ninety-two. The object of the establishment is to train schoolmasters for the Catholic parishes of the four regencies of Coblentz, Koln, Aachen, and Dusseldorf. Its position with relation to the government is, in principle, to receive the pupils from its hands, and to render them back accomplished for their task. In the other normal schools the rule is, that the candidates for admission be examined by the schoolmasters, and by them declared fit or unfit to be either entered or immediately admitted; but here it is the cus-

tom for them to be examined in the department they come from, without any intervention of the school, and afterward admitted by the director on the nomination of the government. On the other hand, the parting examination rests with the school, under the condition of a special commissioner being present. The pupil declared fit for nomination is not subject to be re-examined by the government authorities. According to its regulations, the school is not only authorized, but obliged, at the end of the first year, to send away the pupils who are judged incapable of attaining the requisite excellence. At the time of the last parting examination, the school had been obliged to exercise this power in the case of eight pupils, which reduced their number to ninety-two.

3. HEALTH.

"The health of the students was not so good in 1824 as in the preceding year; as sufficiently appears from the bill for medical attendance for the two years.

"In 1823 this amounted to 66 thaler (9*l.* 18*s.*), in 1824 to 177 thaler (26*l.* 11*s.*) But we must not forget that the number of pupils in the latter year, as compared with the former, was as three to two. There have indeed been no contagious diseases, and few of a serious character, but frequent inflammatory and catarrhal fevers, some intermittent and one nervous fever. Inflammatory ophthalmia, attacks on the chest, and palpitations of the heart have not been rare. The physician has paid the pupils great attention, indeed I might almost say too much; and I have agreed with him that he shall not order them medicines, except in cases where diet, rest, perspiration, and domestic remedies are insufficient. In order to prevent the young men from abusing the facility of applying to a physician, I have ordered that no one shall, for the future, consult him without my permission. Infectious cutaneous diseases are avoided by having the pupils examined by the physician on their entrance, and again a week after. If any well-founded suspicions arise, separation takes place as a measure of precaution; if the appearances of a contagious disease are certain, the pupil is sent home till perfectly cured.

4. ORDER, DISCIPLINE, AND MORALITY.

"Without rigid attention to order, we could not hope for the smallest success. In an establishment composed of various elements, like this normal school, where young men who differ in language (dialect), manners, and education are gathered together, there must be rigorous obedience to rule. In domestic life, the head of the family *is* the rule; and in a large establishment, unquestionably those who govern are strictly bound to furnish an example to all under them. They are that spring of the great machine which cannot cease to move without stopping the whole. But it is also necessary that the establishment should have its precise rules, its written code of laws. The governors, it is true, fill the place of the law whenever it is silent; but all, without distinction, ought to know accurately what they *must* do, and what they *may* do. For this reason, the undersigned cannot share the opinion of some very estimable teachers who think it not necessary, nor even expedient, that there be written laws for an establishment like the primary normal school; nay, that their promulgation may operate only as an incitement to break them. Laws seem to me to grow out of the very nature of the institution. Gather together a number of young men without laying down any rule for them; they themselves will soon feel the necessity of making laws for the government of their intercourse with each other, and will choose one of their body as guardian of these laws. It is, then, natural, useful, and fitting that the managers and masters should make laws

for the school confided to them. If it be true that laws create the temptation to break them, that is a reason why laws for all human society ought to be abolished. Fixed laws give to an institution a steady course, protect the weaker against caprice and tyranny, prevent mistakes and precipitation, and, what is more important for the future, they show in a clear and striking manner the necessity of laws for the commonwealth, and train youth to a reasonable and willing obedience to them. The opinion I offer here springs from my general conviction of the utility of positive written laws, which my own experience has greatly strengthened. For in those infractions of order and discipline which have occasionally happened, I have contented myself with punishing the fault by reading the infringed law to the culprit, in a calm but severe manner, either in private or before all the pupils assembled; and this punishment has never failed of its effect.

"After this digression, which I have thought it expedient to insert here, I return to the order of the house. It is our duty to make the utmost possible use of the daylight, as being more healthful, more cheerful, and more perfect than lamp-light, and costing nothing. In our situation, it would be unpardonable to turn night into day. I make it a great point, too, that the young men should get the habit of rising early, so that in the evening they may lay aside all anxiety and all labor, and give themselves up to the enjoyment of tranquil and refreshing sleep. In summer, therefore, we rise at four, and even earlier when the days are at the longest; in winter at six, in spring and autumn at five. In summer, I and my pupils go to bed at nine or half past, in spring and winter at ten. The pupils ring the *reveille* by turns; a quarter of an hour after, the bell rings again, and all assemble in the dining-hall, where the morning prayer is said; then they all follow me to the church, where I perform the service of the holy mass. One of the students assists in the service; the others sing the responses; this religious act, for which we use the prayer-book and psalter of Bishop Von Hommer, is sometimes mingled with singing, but rarely, because singing very early in the morning is said to be injurious to the voice and chest. All is terminated in an hour; and the pupils, after having thus sanctified the first hour of morning, return to the house, make their beds, breakfast, and then prepare for lessons, which begin at seven or at eight, according to the season. In establishing this rule, I had some fears, at first, that rising so early and going directly into a cold church in the depth of winter, might be injurious to their health; but I am always there before them, and I have never suffered. It may be said that I am more warmly clothed than the young men; but then they are young, their blood is warmer than mine, and that restores the balance. Moreover, it cannot but be advantageous to them to harden themselves, while habits of indulgence and delicacy would be extremely unfavorable to them in their profession. On the Sundays and festivals of the church, I say mass to the students at half past eight in the morning. They sing a German mass for four voices, or simple chants and hymns: and, on high festivals, Latin mass. During the last year, the pupils of the first class have several times executed some easy masses extremely well. But, generally speaking, I am not perfectly satisfied with our church music: not that our masters and pupils do not do their best, but we have not a suitable supply of church music. The singing in Catholic churches is subject to a particular condition: it must be connected with the acts of the mass; it must form a whole, distinct, and yet in harmony with the mass, and moreover, must be adapted to each of the epochs of the ecclesiastical year. Now we have very little church music fit for the people. What there is, is in the hands of a few individuals, who do not choose to part with it. There is doubtless an abundance of sacred music suited to every occasion, but it is all in the most elevated style; and to what good end should the studies of the pupils be pushed so far beyond what can be of use to them in their future sphere of

action? Music of the highest order never can nor ought to become the property of the people. Music ought not to be cultivated as a mere gratification of a sense; it ought to help to ennoble and refine the heart, and to form the moral taste.

"It does not signify so much how they sing, as what they sing. In primary normal schools music ought not, any more than reading, to be the principal object; it must be regarded and treated as a means toward a higher end, which is, education and moral culture. It is therefore with reason that the primary normal schools are required to diffuse a nobler and more worthy kind of popular sacred music; this is, as regards music, their proper office. A good composer, who would devote himself to this object, might acquire immortal honor. It is to be wished that the higher authorities, particularly of the church, would encourage composers who show a genius for sacred music, to fill this chasm. In these remarks I have in view, it is true, only the Catholic church. It is quite otherwise with the Protestant, which possesses a great store of psalms; there is only to choose what are appropriate to the sermon. This greatly facilitates the task of the Protestant normal schools. In the Catholic worship, on the contrary, the sermon is only a subordinate part of a higher whole, with which the singing must harmonize, adapting itself to the different important moments, and hence the scarcity of simple counterpoint fit for the purpose. To attain the proposed end, we ought to have, not only a good organist, but also an able composer, which it is not easy to find. I return to the order of the day.

"As the day begins with prayer, so it ends with it. A quarter of an hour or half an hour before going to bed, all the pupils assemble, at the sound of the bell, for evening devotions. A short portion of the holy scripture is read, and after enlarging more or less on a text, and recommending it to imitation, I conclude by a prayer. During the past year I preached a homiletical discourse on the lesson of the day, before mass every Sunday morning; but as it becomes difficult for me to speak fasting, I now reserve it till evening. It has also been decided, that as a means of keeping alive religious and moral feelings, the pupils should confess and communicate once a month, unless particular reasons render it expedient to prolong the interval to six weeks, or, at furthest, two months. The rest of the day is employed according to the scheme of lessons and the order enjoined by the minister. The pupils are not allowed to go out, except on the weekly afternoon holiday; and this is sufficient for their health, because in all their hours of recreation they can take exercise in a garden of two acres which belongs to the establishment. Nevertheless, on fine days I occasionally give them leave to make expeditions into the country, when I think their health will be benefited by it; making it an express condition that they shall take no pipes.

"It is good to correct faults; better still to prevent them. Abundance of arguments have been adduced in support of the principle that we must let children have their will, in order that their will may become vigorous, and wait till the time when the reason expands to give it a lofty direction. But this is letting the tares overtop the wheat before we attempt to root them out. Experience proves that the good seed springs up more vigorously and thrives better when the soil has been cleared of weeds. Discipline ought, therefore, to precede and to accompany the instruction of young men, as docility and modesty that of children. Doubtless external reverence and reserve are but the beginning of wisdom; man must be brought to think spontaneously and without external impulse, of the duties he lies under, so that it may become his inclination to fulfill whatever he has clearly recognized as a duty, to consult nothing but conscience, and to set himself above the praise and the blame of men. This is true and uncontested; nevertheless, the flesh is always weak, even though the spirit be willing; and there are few of those elect for whom approbation and cen-

sure, remonstrances and encouragements, hope and fear, are not necessary helps; and for that reason, such helps are used for great and small, in private houses as well as in schools, in church as well as in state, and will never fail, if wisely used, to have a salutary effect. A hard ascetical constraint and discipline are as far from my taste as from my principles; but experience demands rigorous order in great schools, especially at their outset. When order has once been thoroughly established, when the will of each has learned to bend to the unity of the collective body, the early severity may be relaxed, and give place to kindness and indulgence. As long as I can recollect, I have observed that the education of children is best in houses where this principle is observed. To let children grow perverse and wayward in their infancy through weak tenderness and indulgence, and then to reprove and chastise them with harshness when their habits are formed, cannot be other than a false system. For these reasons we always begin by reading the rules and disciplinary laws of the house, so that the pupils may distinctly know what they have to do; we then take care that these laws are strictly enforced. The masters, on their side, are careful to show the most punctual obedience to all their duties. We afterward read portions of the rules, according to circumstances, and to the demand for any particular part; thus the discipline is strengthened and facilitated. The highest punishment is expulsion; and last year we were obliged to resort to this twice. In all cases we try to proportion the punishment to the fault, so as to conduce to the amendment of the culprit and the good of all. For instance, if one of the pupils lies in bed from indolence, he is deprived of his portion of meat at dinner, and for four days, a week, or a fortnight, as it may be, is obliged to declare his presence when we meet in the morning. Being kept at home on holidays, ringing the bell, fetching water, &c., are the only corporal punishments for faults of indolence and infractions of order. Faults of impatience or carelessness, of insincerity or mischievousness, of coarseness or any sort of incivility, offenses against decency or good manners, are punished by notes in the inspection-book, which the culprits themselves are obliged to sign. As to the conduct of the students when out of the house, the authorities and inhabitants of the whole neighborhood unanimously bear witness that the presence of these young men is in no way perceived. It is not difficult to speak to their hearts, and by expostulation suited to their age and station, to touch them even to tears.

"Of this I could cite several instances, did I not fear prolonging this Report. I will, however, give one. Last year the students of the highest class were dissatisfied with the steward, and presented a petition very numerously signed, in which they enumerated their causes of complaint, and asked to have him removed. I gave the petition to him, that he might answer the charges; and after he had made his defense, I suffered accusers and accused to plead their cause, at the time of one of the religious lessons. The steward was not irreproachable; his fault was, indeed, evident enough: on the other hand, the complaint was exaggerated, invidious, inexact, and inconsiderate; for several had signed without reading; others had signed because such or such a point seemed to them just; others again had shown themselves extremely active in collecting signatures, and had reproached those who refused to sign. The affair being clearly and circumstantially stated, the steward had his share of the reprimand, and was deeply affected by it; others were moved to tears; and the offenders, when the unbecoming, inconsiderate, and even criminal points of their conduct were distinctly explained to them, acknowledged their injustice, and promised never to act in the like manner again.

"Order and discipline, instruction and prayer, are thus regarded and employed as so many means, general and particular, for cultivating the morality of the pupils; and the undersigned, during the short time he has had the

care of the institution, has had the satisfaction of seeing many who entered it with bad and distressing habits, leave it metamorphosed and renewed. Sedateness and modesty have been substituted for giddiness; the spirit of temperance for craving after sensual enjoyments; and those who came to seek but ordinary bread, have acquired a taste for purer and higher food. It is hardly possible that among so many, a vicious one should not occasionally creep in; and last year, among the new-comers, was a cunning and accomplished thief, whose depredations filled the establishment with dissatisfaction and alarm. It was difficult to find him out, but falsehood and perversity betray themselves in the end. Heavy suspicions were accumulated during the year on the head of the criminal; and though there were not positive proofs, he could not so escape our vigilance as not to leave us in possession of a moral certainty against him. He was expelled at the examination of last year. Nevertheless, as there was no legal proof, his name was not stigmatized by publicity, and the higher authorities will readily excuse my not mentioning it here, and will be satisfied with the assurance that no misfortune of the kind has since occurred.

5. INSTRUCTION.

The business of the primary normal school is to form schoolmasters. It must therefore furnish its pupils with the sum of knowledge which the state has declared indispensably necessary to the intellectual wants of the lower classes of the people, of whom they are to be the teachers, and must afterward fit them to fulfill their important vocation with zeal and with a religious will and earnestness.

No more than grapes can be gathered from thorns, or figs from thistles, can any thing good be hoped from schoolmasters who are regardless of religion and of morality. For this reason, religious instruction is placed at the head of all other parts of education: its object is to implant in the normal schools such a moral and religious spirit as ought to pervade the popular schools. The course of religious instruction has undergone no change from that stated in the report of last year, except that the several classes have been united for the Biblical part. During the present year we propose to treat the concordance of the Gospels, the history of the Apostles, and some of the Epistles. The course adopted is this:—The series of the concordance is established and dictated by the master; the passages and discourses are explained, and, if thought expedient, learnt by heart by the pupils. For the catechising, or religious and moral instruction, properly so called, the classes are separated. The great catechism of Overberg is taken as a ground-work; and we treat first of faith, then of morals, so that the latter may be intimately connected with the former, or to speak better, that morality may flow from faith as from its source. I regard religion as a disposition or affection of the soul, which unites man, in all his actions, with God; and he alone is truly religious who possesses this disposition, and strives by every means to cherish it. In this view of the subject all morality is religious, because it raises man to God, and teaches him to live in God. I must confess, that in religious instruction I do not confine myself to any particular method; I try by meditation to bring the thing clearly before my own mind, and then to expound it intelligibly, in fitting language, with gravity and calmness, with unction and earnestness, because I am convinced that a clear exposition obliges the pupils to meditate, and excites interest and animation.

As for the historical part, I have made choice of a short exposition of the history of the Christian church, with an introduction on the constitution of the Jewish church. I think it impossible to learn any thing of universal history, that can be useful or instructive to the students, in less than a hund-

red lessons. It signifies little whether a village schoolmaster knows the history of India, China, or Greece; but he ought to know something of the history of the church, because it is, in many points, nearly connected with that of religion. I must confess that, in the measure of time allowed us, I cannot make universal history very interesting or profitable to the pupils; but it is otherwise with ecclesiastical history.

I introduce the theory of education and tuition by experimental psychology. This course of study is of infinite use, in teaching the science of education, and of tuition, as likewise in teaching morals and religion; but I regard the school for practice, and the method there pursued, as the best course of pedagogical instruction. I have come to the conviction that, generally speaking, it is necessary to recommend to the pupils of the normal schools, and to all young schoolmasters, a firm and decided plan, leaving it to them to modify it as time and experience dictate. It is with them as with a traveler going to a place he has never been at before: it is best to show him the high road, that he may not lose himself; when he is familiar with that, he may try cross-roads, if he thinks they will abridge his journey. The masters of the school agree in my views on this point, and endeavor to act up to them. The following are their courses of instruction in their several departments, furnished by themselves.

*Language:** *First class, or class of the first year.*—In the first half year we begin with the simplest elements, and gradually go through all the parts of speech, but without their subdivisions. In the second half year we go through the subdivisions in like manner; so that, in the first year, a thorough knowledge is acquired of the simple and compound elements, as well as of the divisions and subdivisions of speech. The course of instruction is partly synthetic, and partly analytic; that is to say, what has been learned in the first manner, is made thoroughly clear in the second, by the analysis of a passage from some author. *Second class, or class of the second year.*—This class, proceeding in a similar way, goes through the most complicated periods. In the second half year the pupils are familiarized with the most important principles of logic and of etymology.

Arithmetic: Second class.†—In the first half year are studied the rule of three, single and compound interest, and discount; in the second, the extraction of the square and cube roots, as far as equations of the first and second degree. The result of this course is a complete familiarity with all the branches of common arithmetic. These two departments of instruction, language and arithmetic, are taught according to the views of the inspector.

Geometry: Second class.—In the first half year they get through what relates to rectilinear figures and the circle; in the second, the theory of the transmutation of figures is added; and after that, the most important principles of geometry and the measurement of solids. The books of instruction are those of F. Schmid and Von Turck.

Drawing: First class.—In the first half year drawing is carried as far as the knowledge of the most important laws of perspective, so as to place objects, not too complex, according to the laws of perspective. In the second half year they study light and shade. *Second class.*—During the first half year the attention is directed to the relief and shading of works of art, such as houses, churches, vases, &c. In the second half, the pupils copy good drawings of landscapes, flowers, &c., with a view to familiarize them with the style of the best masters. The method adopted is that of F. Schmid.

Reading: First class.—Begins by the enunciation of some simple propositions, which are decomposed into words; the words are reduced to syllables, and these to their simple sound. This course has been adopted with the pupils, that they may themselves use it with the younger children, and thus acquire a familiar acquaintance with it. It is taught according to the

* M. Wagner. † Another master takes the arithmetic for the first class or first year.

views of the inspector. *Second class.*—In the first class the principal object is reading with ease; in the second, reading with expression. The chief means of instruction consist in the master's reading aloud frequently, because it is considered that this plan is more unfailing and more easy than any rules. Since, however great the application on the part of both master and pupil, the art of reading is at all times difficult to acquire, this branch of instruction occupies a whole year.

Singing: First class.—In the first half year they begin with easy exercises in time and melody; the next step is to easy pieces for four voices. The second half year is devoted to more difficult exercises of the same kind; so that, by the end of the year, the pupils have acquired a tolerable facility in reading.

Natural Philosophy: Second class.—During the first half year the attention is directed to the general and particular properties of bodies; to those of the elements, water, air, and fire; then to the theory of sounds, the velocity of winds, the equilibrium of fluids, and aqueous meteors. In the second half year comes the theory of light, electricity, the lever, the inclined plane, luminous meteors, optics, &c. The principal object is to render the pupils attentive to the most striking phenomena of nature, and to accustom them to reflect upon her laws and secrets. The method adopted here is that of the inspector.

During half of last year my* lessons embraced the following points:—

Mental Arithmetic.—1, The knowledge of numbers with reference to their value and form; 2, addition; 3, subtraction; 4, subtraction and addition combined; 5, multiplication; 6, multiplication combined with the preceding rule; 7, division; 8, varied combinations of the four fundamental rules. Each rule was accompanied by its application, and by examples drawn from common life. My principal aim was to exercise the pupils in applying the rules to practice. I have endeavored also to draw their attention to the theory, and especially to the mode of using different rules in the solution of the same problem; with this view, I have always alternated the oral and written exercises.

Arithmetic on the Slate.—Calculation on the slate is based upon mental arithmetic, insomuch that the latter may be considered as a preparation for the former. When the four first exercises in mental arithmetic are gone through, the pupils begin to use the slate. I have labored not only to give them practical dexterity, but also solid knowledge, and with this aim have accustomed them to try various ways of working the questions.

Elements of Geometry.—I have followed the work of Harnisch, and his theory of space drawn from the theory of crystals, and employed by him as a basis to the mathematics.

NATURAL HISTORY: *Botany.*—The principal parts of a plant are first pointed out and named; then each of these parts are examined separately:—1, the root, its form and direction; 2, the stem, its internal construction, its figure and its covering; 3, the buds, their place upon the stalk; 4, the leaves, their variety according to their situation, their mode of insertion, their figure, their place; 5, the flower-stalks; 6, the flowers according to their species, the manner in which they are fixed, their composition; the calyx, corolla, stamina, pistil, the fruit, seed-vessel, and sex of the plants. All this has been shown to the pupils, either in the plants themselves, or in drawings which I have traced on the slate. I interrupted the botany till we could take it up again after Easter, and began

Mineralogy.—I have pursued the same course here. The pupils have first been familiarized with the properties which distinguish minerals one from another, as their colors, the arrangement of parts, the external form, regular and irregular, or crystalline form; the polish, texture, transparency, vein,

* Mr. Richter.

hardness, alteration of color, effervescence in acids: all these properties have been observed by the pupils in the minerals of our collection. To this succeeded the classification of minerals, from which the pupils have learned the names and uses of the most important.

Singing.—Having devoted last year, with my singing pupils, to time, tune, and acoustics, I have, during the past six months, combined the three branches of the art of singing which I had before taught separately, and have practiced them chiefly on sacred vocal music, such as a psalm of Schnabel's, a chorus from Handel's Messiah, a mass of Hasslinger, and another of Schiedermeyer, a chorus from Haydn's Creation, two songs by Von Weber, &c.

*Thorough-Base.**—The lessons I have given in this science have been according to Hering's practical introduction, or to my own ideas. The following course has been adopted: 1, the theory of intervals; 2, the theory of harmonic thirds, *a.* if they comprise a scale, *b.* if they belong to the whole system; 3, the theory of the chord of the seventh, *a.* if it belongs to a scale, *b.* if it belongs to the whole system of chords; 4, modulation, *a.* in a free style, *b.* in a free style, with particular reference to the organ; 5, written exercises in parts for four voices.

Geography.—We have finished Germany and begun Europe: the following course has been adopted. First we made the pupils acquainted, as exactly as possible, with the Rhenish provinces—our own peculiar country; then with Prussia, then with the rest of Germany. This was done in the following manner: 1, the boundaries; 2, the mountains; 3, the rivers; 4, the natural divisions according to the rivers; 5, the towns. We then considered Germany in its political divisions, paying attention to the position and natural limits of the countries. All the exercises on this subject were done with skeleton maps. If time permit (though only one year with two lessons a week are allotted to this department), Europe will be followed by a general review of the earth.

Writing.—In the writing I have followed exactly the system of Hennig; by giving, 1, the easiest and simplest letters of the running alphabet to be copied, each letter separately, till the pupil can make them with ease; 2, words composed of such letters as they have practiced; 3, at the opening of the course, after Easter, will come the capital letters, in the same way; 4, English handwriting.† In practicing single letters, I have especially pointed out how one was formed out of another, and the letter they were practicing as making part of that which followed. Afterward copies, written, not engraved, are placed before the pupils, because these last, according to the opinion of good penmen, discourage the pupils.

Orthography.—1, The object and utility of orthography; 2, general rules of German orthography; 3, the use of capital letters; 4, the regular use of isolated letters; 5, the division, composition, and abbreviation of words. These rules are alternately put in practice in the dictations. The director, with the assistance of the masters, examines in each department every three months. Instrumental music, on the violin, piano-forte, and organ, is taught by Mr. Richter and Mr. Rudisch, with the assistance of two pupils.

6. SCHOOL FOR PRACTICE.

It is difficult, in a written description, to convey a just idea of a school, or of any large establishment for instruction. Nevertheless, I will endeavor to give a brief sketch of this institution, and of the manner in which the pupils are there occupied. The regulations fix from one to three in the afternoon for the lessons of practice. The children of the school for practice are di-

* Mr. Rudisch.

† *i. e.* The Italian handwriting, as distinguished from the current German hand.—TRANSL.

vided into eight classes, and one of the pupils from the normal school presides over each of these divisions alternately, so that twenty-four are occupied from one to two, and twenty-four from two to three; and while the first twenty-four are teaching, the others listen, that they may be ready at any moment to take it up and continue the lesson. This can be done only where a fixed and complete mode of instruction is laid down.

The branches taught by the pupils are grammar, reading, composition, writing, drawing, arithmetic, mental exercises, singing, religion. Language is taught partly after Krause, and partly on the plan of the inspector, Mr. Wagner. Reading is closely connected with writing, according to the method of the inspector. The pupils of the higher classes have subjects of familiar compositions given them; at the same time, they are made to learn by heart short letters, narrations and descriptions, because this is deemed the best method of familiarizing children with the language, and enabling them to express themselves with ease in writing. When they have learned a piece by heart, they endeavor to write it without a fault, and with the proper punctuation; the comparison with the original and the correction are left to themselves, that the thing may be more deeply impressed upon their mind. Arithmetic is taught on the system of Schumacher and Jos. Schmid. In the lower classes great care is taken that the numbers are always correct, in order to avoid the inefficient and too artificial mental arithmetic of Pestalozzi, and to make arithmetic itself an exercise of language. Singing is taught by the two forwardest pupils of the school, who give two lessons in the morning, and drawing by the two most skillful draughtsmen. For exercises in language and mental activity, use is occasionally made of Krause's *Exercises for the Mind*, and Pestalozzi's *Mother's Book*. On religion the pupils give but one lesson a week, under the particular guidance of the director. The special superintendence of this school is confided to the inspector, Mr. Wagner, who, besides a daily visit during the lessons, subjects them to a slight examination every week, to keep up a persevering activity in the young men, and to know exactly what progress is made. The satisfaction of the parents at the pupils' mode of teaching is proved by the regular attendance at the school. I am well satisfied with the practical ability hitherto shown by the pupils.

7 MASTERS OF THE ESTABLISHMENT.

Two masters, besides the director, were last year annexed to the establishment—the inspector, Mr. Wagner, and Mr. Richter. The assistant master, Mr. Rudisch, was added at the beginning of this year. These masters give their entire and undivided attention to the school; yet they are not sufficient for this great establishment; two pupils and the organist of the town assist in the department of instrumental music.

Although the general superintendence rests upon the director, yet, to relieve him, one of the masters in rotation has hitherto conducted the special inspection each week. But I see every day more clearly, that the whole inspection ought to devolve upon the director alone;—in a well-regulated house there should be but one head. The other masters also recognize this principle; and in the end the director will have the whole superintendence, and, in case of need, will transfer it to the inspector. But as the director and the inspector cannot be always with the pupils, and as it is nevertheless necessary that there should be some fixed person to refer to when disturbances or complaints occur, the established custom will be continued of appointing the student who is deemed the best fitted as superintendent of his fellow-students. This plan may, besides, have a very useful effect in the education both of the young superintendent and of his school-fellows.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION

PURSUED IN THE TWO CLASSES AT THE NORMAL SEMINARY IN EISLEBEN, PRUSSIA, IN THE SUMMER HALF YEAR OF 1839.

HOURS.	CLASSES.	MONDAY.	TUESDAY.	WEDNESDAY.	THURSDAY.	FRIDAY.	SATURDAY.
7 to 8	First	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Art of teaching,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction,	Religious instruction.
	Second	Religious instruction,	Profane history,	Logic,	Religious instruction,	Profane history,	Logic or sacred history.
8 to 9	First	Profane history,	Logic,	Geography,	Profane history,	Logic or Prussian history,	Geography.
	Second	Arithmetic,	Thorough bass and organ,	Geometry,	Grammar,	Arithmetic,	Geometry.
9 to 10	First	Reading,	Organ,	Thorough bass,	Art of teaching,	Reading,	Arithmetic.
	Second	Thorough bass and organ,	Religious instruction,	Drawing,	Writing,	Religious instruction,	Thorough bass and organ.
10 to 11	First	Arithmetic,	Grammar,	Violin,	Arithmetic,	Grammar,	Organ.
	Second	Grammar,	Singing,	Drawing,	Thorough bass and organ,	Singing,	Writing.
1 to 2	First	Art of teaching,	Natural Philosophy,	. .	Examination,	Natural history,	. .
	Second	Natural Philosophy,	Reading,	. .	Natural philosophy,	Reading,	. .
2 to 3	First	Geometry,	Drawing,	. .	Geometry,	Writing,	. .
	Second	Composition,	Geography,	. .	Composition,	Geography,	. .
3 to 4	First	Thorough bass,	Drawing,	. .	Violin,	Writing,	. .
	Second	. .	Violin,	. .	. .	Violin,	. .
4 to 5	First	Organ,	. .	. .	Organ,	. .	. .

NOTE.—Three hours of singing, and one hour of instruction in the art of teaching, are also weekly given at indeterminate times.

SEMINARY FOR TEACHERS*

AT WEISSENFELS,

IN PRUSSIA.

THIS seminary, for the education of teachers for the elementary schools, is one of four belonging to the province of Saxony,† and was last organized in 1822. It combines within its premises, or in the neighborhood, so as to be subject to the control of the same director, the following establishments: 1. The normal school, or seminary for teachers, a government institution. 2. A preparatory school, subsidiary to the former, and established by the enterprise of its teachers. 3. A seminary school, or burgher school, of four hundred pupils, already described. 4. An elementary school for poor children, of two hundred pupils. 5. A school for the deaf and dumb, of twenty-five pupils, established in 1828, and supported by the government. The last three mentioned schools afford practice to the students of the seminary.

The government of these establishments is confided to a director,‡ who is responsible immediately to the provincial school-board in Magdeburg. He has the personal charge of the seminary in which he gives instruction, and of which he superintends the domestic economy, discipline, and police. He is assisted in the seminary by three teachers, who meet him once a week in conference, to discuss the progress and conduct of the pupils, the plans of instruction, and other matters relating to the school. There are also seven assistant teachers, five for the seminary school, and two for the deaf and dumb institution, who also assist in the seminary itself. Once a month there is a general meeting of the teachers of all the schools just enumerated, for similar purposes.

Applicants for admission are required to produce certificates of baptism, of moral conduct, and of health,§ besides an engagement on the part of their parents or guardians to pay an annual sum of fifty thalers (thirty-seven dollars) for maintenance. These papers must be forwarded to the director a fortnight before the day of examination. The candidates are examined at a stated time of the year (after Easter), in presence of all the teachers of the school, and their attainments must prove satisfactory in Bible and church history, the Lutheran Catechism, reading, writing, German grammar, especially the orthography of the language, the ground-rules of arithmetic (mental and written), geography and history, and natural history and philosophy, of the grade of the highest class of a burgher school. They must also be able to play, at sight, easy pieces of music upon the violin. The usual age of admission is eighteen; and the lowest at which they are admissible, seventeen. On entrance, they are entitled to free lodging and instruction, and, if their conduct and progress are satisfactory, in general, receive a yearly allowance of twenty-five dollars, which is equivalent, nearly, to the cost of their maintenance. Their clothing and school-books are provided by the pupils. The modes of preparation judged most appropriate by the authorities of the seminary are, the attendance on a burgher school, with private lessons from a competent teacher, or entrance into the preparatory establishment at Weissenfels. A gymnasium is considered by no means a proper place for the

* From Bache's Education in Europe.

† At Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Erfurt, and Weissenfels.

‡ The Rev. Dr. Harnisch, to whom I am indebted for a kind welcome to his institution, and a MS. account of its different schools.

§ The directions issued by the provincial authorities are, that they shall have a strong chest and sound lungs, not to be too near-sighted, nor deaf, nor infirm. The physician's certificate must state whether they have had the measles, &c.

preparation of pupils, its courses, discipline, and mode of life having a different tendency from that required by the future teacher of a common school.

The admission of new pupils takes place with some ceremony, in presence of the teachers and pupils. The director gives a charge, in which he makes them acquainted with the rules of the school, chiefly those relating to moral conduct, to obedience to the authorities, punctuality, regular attendance at study, school, church, and, in general, on the appointed exercises, due exertion, neatness in their habits, and exactness in the payment of dues to the tradesmen with whom they may deal. They bind themselves to serve for three years after leaving the school, in whatever situation may be assigned them by the regency of Merseburg, or to pay the cost of their education and maintenance. During their stay at the seminary, they are exempted from military service, except for six weeks. In fact, this service usually takes place at leaving the school, and before entering upon their new career. The number of pupils, on the average, is sixty.

The courses of instruction are, morals and religion, German, arithmetic and geometry, cosmology, pedagogy, terraculture, hygiene, theory and practice of music, drawing, and writing. Cosmology is a comprehensive term for geography, an outline of history and biography, the elements of natural history and natural philosophy, all that relates to the world (earth) and its inhabitants. Pedagogy includes both the science and art of teaching. The courses just enumerated are divided among the masters, according to the supposed ability of each in the particular branches, the whole instruction being given by the four teachers. The director, as is customary in these schools, takes the religious instruction, and the science and art of teaching, as his especial province, and adds lectures on the theory of farming and gardening (terraculture), and of health.

The duration of the course of studies has been reduced from three years to two, on account, as is alleged, of the necessity for a more abundant supply of teachers. There are, probably, other reasons, such as the expense, and the fear of over-educating the pupils for their station, which have been influential in bringing about this reduction. There are two classes corresponding to the two years of study. The first year is devoted entirely to receiving instruction; and in the second, practice in teaching is combined with it. In the preparatory school there is likewise a course of two years, and the pupils are divided into two classes. This establishment is in a building near the seminary, which can accommodate forty pupils, and is under the special charge of one of the teachers.*

The outline of the studies in the two schools is as follows:

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Bible stories, which the pupils must be able to narrate with propriety. Christian doctrine. Portions of Scripture committed to memory. Four hours weekly.

I Class. Reading the Bible, especially the historical parts. Krummacher's Bible Catechism. Christian doctrine. Parables of the New Testament. Seven hours.

In the lectures on Christian doctrine, which the two classes of the normal school attend together, the director gives a portion of Scripture to be committed to memory, explains and illustrates it, and interrogates the pupils, who take notes of the lecture, which they subsequently write out.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Reading the Bible, particularly the historical parts; writing catechetical exercises, adapted to children. Two hours.

* The payments made by the pupils are, per annum, for instruction, nine dollars; for dinner, bread not included, thirteen dollars and fifty cents; lodging, three dollars; waiting and nursing in time of sickness, one dollar and seventy-five cents; use of library, fifty cents.

I Class. Continuation of the second class course. Two hours.
I and II Class. Christian doctrine, from Luther's Catechism. Three hours. History of the different dispensations. Two hours. A course of two years.

The course of church history is taught, also, by the mixed method of lecture and interrogation, to both classes united.

GERMAN LANGUAGE.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Exercises of speech in reading and delivery. Descriptions and essays on subjects drawn from common life. Grammar. Writing, as an exercise in calligraphy and orthography. Nine hours.
I Class. Reading, with explanations. Composition. Grammar revised. Writing, as in the second class. Nine hours.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Reading, with explanations. Writing, as an exercise of calligraphy and orthography. Exercises of style. A composition once every month. Essays from history, geography, or natural history. Grammar revised. Eight hours.
I Class. Poetry, with readings. Calligraphy. Exercises of style. Grammar revised. National literature. Seven hours.
The first and second classes are united for a portion of instruction in this department, intended to rid them of provincialisms of speech, and to improve their handwriting. Three hours.

MATHEMATICS.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Arithmetic, including the Rule of Three. Three hours.
I Class. Arithmetic, revised and extended. Use of compass and ruler. Four hours.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Geometry, commenced. Four hours.
I Class. Revision of previous studies. Geometry, continued. Two hours.

The method of teaching mathematics is that of Pestalozzi; and director Harnisch has himself prepared a work on geometry for his pupils. The applications are made to follow the principles closely. As in the other courses, the greater part of the learning is done in the school-room, the books being used rather for reference than for preparation. In the lessons which I attended in this department, much skill was displayed by the instructors, and a very considerable degree of intelligence by the pupils. Considering it as the means of developing the reasoning powers, this method is very far superior to that in which the propositions are learned from books. To exemplify the method of Dr. Harnisch, I may state the following case of a recitation in geometry by the second class. The equality of two triangles, when the two sides and the angle contained between them in one are equal respectively to the two sides and the contained angle in the other, had been shown by the teacher, and the demonstration repeated by the pupils, who were interrogated closely upon it. An application of the theorem was at once required, to determining the distance between two points, one of which is inaccessible. Two of the class found the solution immediately, and all were able to take part in the subsequent discussion of the problem.

COSMOLOGY (WELTKUNDE).

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

II Class. Elements of botany and zoology. Excursions for practical instruction in the former. Four hours.
I Class. Geography and the drawing of maps. Elements of physics and technology. Biography. Three hours.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Revision of the above studies. Three hours.
I and II Classes united. General views of the earth and its productions and inhabitants. One hour weekly for one year. Gardening and hygiene (Gesundheitskunde). Two hours weekly for two years.

The lectures in the normal school on these subjects are by the director. The means of illustration in physics are small, and the whole course is chiefly intended to show the future teachers how wide a range of knowledge may be opened to them by study. The natural history is illustrated, for the most part, by drawings. To render the seminarists more useful in their situation of country schoolmasters, which a large proportion of the pupils become, they have lectures on the principles of agriculture and gardening, and also practical lessons from the gardener, who has charge of the grounds. The pupils work during the appropriate season every day in turn, under the direction of the gardener. Good manuals, conveying correct but elementary instruction on these matters, are much wanted. They should, perhaps, be prepared by a teacher, but by no means allowed to go into use without revision by persons specially acquainted with the different branches of science thus grouped together. This revision would insure the accuracy which, though difficult to attain, is so necessary; the more so in conveying such elements, as there is no collateral knowledge to correct or modify error as to fact or theory.

SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

The first class receive simple directions for keeping school, and lessons on teaching. They attend in turn the classes of the seminary-schools two hours weekly, but take no part in teaching.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

II Class. Lessons on teaching, three hours. Visits to the schools, three hours.
I Class. Lessons on the art of teaching, three hours. Visits to the schools, five hours. Lessons on the instruction of the deaf and dumb, by the director of that department, one hour.
I and II Classes united. Science of teaching, two hours.

The director delivers the course on the science of teaching, which in these schools is considered of the highest importance, and also gives a portion of the lessons in the art of teaching to the first class.

The theoretical instruction in the science and art of teaching embraces two courses, each of a year; the first being devoted chiefly to education in general, the second to instruction and the arrangements of the school.* The director remarks of this course, that the pupils learn by it to say a good deal upon these subjects, and sometimes believe that they can easily execute what they can so readily describe; an opinion of which practice can alone show the error, and which it is essential should be removed. The general theory of education is founded upon the constitution of man, and, under the head of instruction, the methods of teaching the various branches are described. The practice which must render this theory of real use is had in part in the schools. The pupils attend the free school, the burgher school, and the deaf and dumb school, at stated times. They go at first as listeners, next take part in the instruction, under direction of the assistant teachers, and lastly instruct the classes. In order that they may have models of teaching, not only in the assistants, but in the teachers of the seminary themselves, the latter give lessons occasionally in the different schools. Thus the director teaches one hour per week in the seminary school, the second teacher two hours, and the third and fourth teachers four hours. The lower class attend the several classes of the burgher school, except the highest girls' class, remaining, in general, one-fifth of the time in each class except the lowest, where they remain double this time, and visiting each

* Harnisch's Manual of Common School Matters (Handbuch des Volks-schulwesens) is used as a text-book.
A more common division of the course is into pedagogics, or the principles of education and instruction. Methodics, or the art of teaching the system or methods of education, to which a third division is sometimes added, called didactics, which relates to the subjects of education, (Schwarz Erziehung und Unterrichts lehre).

class twice at intervals. The upper class attend also the girls' class, the deaf and dumb school, and the free school, remaining one-eighth of their time in each of the classes. Each member of the lower class keeps a journal of his visits to the schools, which is inspected by the second teacher. Each of the first class draws up a report of his occupation and observations in the schools, which is reviewed by the assistant teacher of the class to which it refers, and is then examined by the second teacher and by the director. The several assistant teachers make reports upon the qualifications of the seminarists who have given instruction in their classes. By these arrangements, a pupil who has the mental qualities essential to a teacher cannot fail to become well versed in the practice of his profession. Habits of observation are inculcated, which must be of great service to him in his practice, enabling him to adapt himself to the circumstances in which he is placed, and to profit by the experience of every day.

To exemplify the principles and methods, a small number of the children from the seminary school are brought into the class-room of the seminary, and are examined upon a given subject by some of the pupils. The class present and the director make their notes on these examinations, and the exercise terminates by an examination of the children by the director himself, as an exemplification of his views, and that they may not receive injury from being left in a half or ill-informed state on the subjects of the lesson. The children having retired, the different members of the class make their criticisms, which are accepted or shown to be erroneous by the director, a conference or discussion being kept up until the subject is exhausted. The character of each exercise is marked by the director, who is thus enabled to judge of the progress made by every member of the class, and to encourage or admonish privately, according to circumstances.

The lectures given by the head master of the school for the deaf and dumb are also accompanied by practice, a certain number of pupils being detained every day for that purpose. The basis of the method is the idea that it is possible to restore the deaf mute to society, by enabling him to understand spoken language from the motion of the lips, and to speak intelligibly by mechanical rules. It is hoped ultimately, by training every schoolmaster in this method, that the mute may be instructed in schools with other children, and thus not be required to sunder ties of kindred during a long absence from home. The pupils of the deaf and dumb institution do not live in the establishment, but are boarded with tradesmen of the town of Weissenfels. The object is to induce the practice of the lessons out of school, the pupils being enjoined to avoid the use of signs. The first lesson is one in articulation. The principle of this instruction is now dominant in Germany, but up to this time the system has not been fairly tried by its results. The indomitable perseverance of the masters of the principal schools which I visited struck me with admiration; but I was not convinced that what they aimed at was practicable, at least to the extent which their principle asserts. The attempt deserves, however, the best encouragement.

DRAWING.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

The two classes united for geometrical and perspective drawing.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

The same course continued.

MUSIC.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

The two classes united for instruction in the elements of music. Choral singing. Instruction is given on the piano and organ to the pupils, divided into four sections. They are also taught the violin.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

The instruction, as just stated, is continued. Theory of music. Composition.

The violin is taught, as the means of leading the exercises in singing in the elementary schools. The piano serves as an introduction to the organ, a knowledge of which is important to the Prussian schoolmaster, as enabling him to act as organist in the church of the parish where his school may be situated. So high a value is placed upon an elementary knowledge in vocal music, that an ability to give instruction in it is indispensable to admission into the class of teachers. It is not, therefore, surprising that the pupils of the seminaries, in general, are proficients in music. I confess, however, that I was not prepared for the advance in the theory and practice to which many of the first class in this school had attained. In regard to the former, I was present at one of the exercises in composition, in which the teacher* read, and the pupils transcribed, three stanzas of poetry. This done, they were required to compose an air adapted to the words. In less than ten minutes, a fifth of the class were ready. The teacher took his station at a blackboard, on which the ledger lines were drawn, and one of the pupils whom he designated began to sing the words to the air which he had composed, the teacher writing the music meanwhile. This air was pronounced not to be original. A second was tried, which the teacher thought an imitation. A third and fourth he accepted, and wrote upon the board. They were criticised by both the class and teacher, set to parts by the former, and sung. The two classes were in the next hour united for choral singing, in which many are proficient, the teacher leading at the organ.

The course of drawing is limited in extent, the object being chiefly to give opportunities to those pupils who have a taste for drawing to cultivate it. In fact, as it tends to divert attention from more important matters, which the short time spent at the seminary requires entire devotion to, it is not much encouraged.

The four teachers attached to the normal school have charge of specific departments of labor, as well as of particular implements of instruction. The director has the general superintendence of the instruction, discipline, household arrangements, and finance, and is librarian of their small collection. The second teacher has charge of one of the schools, of the musical exercises, books, and instruments; a third, of the students when assembled, especially in the school-house, and of the drawings, copy-slips for writing, and maps. The fourth superintends the pupils while in the dwelling-house, and also at meals. These teachers are aided in their duties by younger ones attached to the seminary, under the title of assistant teachers. The dining-hall, or the recitation-rooms, serve as places of study, according as the pupils are in the school-house or in the dwelling, the two buildings being separated by a portion of the grounds. The chapel, which is a neat room connected with the school-house, serves for the music-room, as well as for the religious exercises.

The order of the day in the normal school will serve to show how constantly these young men are employed in preparing for the duties of their arduous profession, and yet they appeared to me always cheerful in the performance of their self-imposed task. In winter, the pupils rise at five, and, after washing and dressing, have a brief religious exercise, and study until breakfast, which is at seven o'clock. Until eight there is recreation. From eight until twelve they are in school, engaged in recitation, listening to lectures, or teaching. From twelve until one they have dinner and recreation. From one until five they are again in school. From five until seven or half past seven, in summer, there is recreation, or excursions are made with a teacher, and then study until nine. In winter, there is recreation until six, from six to eight study, and from eight to nine musical exercises, one-third playing on the violin, another on the organ or piano, and another singing. At half past nine in winter, and ten in summer, the pupils retire. There are prayers

* Mr. Henschel.

morning and evening. On Wednesday and Saturday they have half of the day for recreation, and in summer make excursions to collect plants or minerals. A place for gymnastic exercises is provided, and used during the hours of recreation.

The moral education of these young men is closely attended to. They not only receive direct religious instruction, but the best examples are constantly before them. The chief reward for proficiency or good conduct is the approbation of the teachers; the principal punishment, short of dismission, their disapprobation. The director has, also, the influence, resulting from his power, to give pecuniary assistance to the meritorious while in the school, and to secure them good places at leaving it. The greatest harmony reigns throughout the establishment. On the evenings of Saturday, there are frequently parties in turn among the teachers, to which the pupils are invited, and where there is usually music. Those who have acquaintances in the town are encouraged to visit their families, but the places of visiting must be known to the director.

Physical education is most essential where young men, at the time of life of these seminarists, are sedulously engaged in intellectual pursuits, and necessarily so much confined to the house. They, therefore, have gymnastic exercises or work in the fields or garden, or walk during those periods of the day and parts of the week allowed for recreation. Care is taken that, unless indisposed, they do not remain in the house at those times, when the weather permits them to be in the open air. There is an infirmary for the sick, in which one of the pupils in turn acts as nurse, and a physician is called in when necessary.

The school year is divided into three terms, the first from the beginning of June until August, the second from September to Christmas, and the third from January to May. The holidays are four weeks in August, two at Christmas, and one at Easter. During the first two named, the pupils go home to their friends. Christmas is celebrated in the school, and at the close of the first and second terms there are private examinations, the results of which are communicated to the students. At the close of the third term, the examination for passing from the second to the first class is held, and none are promoted from one class to another unless fully proficient in the courses of the past year. At the end of the second year, they are examined upon the whole range of study, and in composition and orthography. Those who pass satisfactorily receive a diploma, and find no difficulty in obtaining employment as teachers. Some of the most promising are frequently retained in the schools of the institution as assistant teachers, under the appointment of the director. The additional experience thus gained is of importance in a professional, and ultimately in a pecuniary point of view.

Every pupil, on leaving the school with a diploma, makes a drawing, or copies a piece of music or of writing, which he leaves as a memento.

The pupils of all the normal schools are bound by law to serve in such situations as may be assigned to them for three years, or to pay certain sums in lieu of this service.

The domestic economy is superintended by the director, who has a housekeeper under his orders. Dinner is provided at a common table, but each person furnishes himself with breakfast and supper. The diet is of the plainest kind, but there is meat for dinner every day in the week except two.* The police of the establishment is attended to by the pupils themselves. The members of the second class, in turn, have charge of the police of the school-rooms, dormitories, of the lamps, of ringing the bell, &c.; or these duties are executed by those who have fallen under censure. The first class superintend the fires and out-of-door work, have charge of the

* The dinner costs seven dollars and fifty cents per annum, or about two cents and a half per day. If a pupil receives no stipend from the institution, he is charged but half this sum.

cellar, store-room, lavatory, &c. There are three dormitories, under the general superintendence of one of the teachers, aided by pupils selected for the purpose. The bed and bedding are furnished by the pupils at entrance. The lodging of these youths is, like their fare and clothing, of the plainest sort—a plainness which puts in strong relief the richness of the moral and intellectual culture afforded by the institution.*

The following additional particulars respecting this celebrated seminary, are gathered from a full description by Mr. Kay, in his "*Social Condition and Education of the People of Europe.*" Mr. Kay's visit to the institution was made in 1846. He gives prominence to some features briefly alluded to by Dr. Bache.

All candidates for admission present themselves at the institution, at the annual candidates' examinations, which are conducted by the director and professors, in the presence of the educational magistrate for the county. The most able and forward of the candidates are then, after a careful examination, elected and admitted. There are generally, in each of the Prussian provinces, some special regulations, limiting this choice of students for the normal colleges. Thus, the regulations of the province, in which the normal college of Weissenfels is situated, prescribe, that "no short-sighted, deaf, or feeble candidates shall be admitted." The same regulations also direct the examiners to give a preference to those candidates who have a broad chest and a good voice. They also forbid any young man being admitted before he has completed his seventeenth year, or, "unless he is a young man of a good character, moral habits, and unimpeachable conduct."

A part of the young students educated in the Weissenfels institution are prepared for admission in a preparatory normal college, situated not far from the principal establishment. This preparatory institution contains about sixty boys, most of whom are destined for reception into the principal college. Some of them, however, make such satisfactory progress in their studies during their residence in the preparatory institution, as to be able to present themselves at the annual examination for diplomas, without going through the normal college at all. The course of study at this preparatory school is of two years' duration. The boys, who are destined to be teachers, and whose parents can afford to pay for their education, enter it about the end of their fifteenth year, after leaving the primary parochial schools. There are two classes in this school. The first class is intended for the boys during their first year's residence in the establishment, the second contains all those who have spent more than one year in the establishment.

The subjects of instruction in the first class of this preparatory school are: religious instruction, Scripture history; composition; a clear pronunciation in reading and speaking; arithmetic, writing, the German language; agriculture and farming; drawing; singing, the violin, and piano-forte.

The subjects of instruction in the second class are: religious instruction, Scripture history, Scriptural interpretation; the German language; writing, arithmetic, geometry, natural philosophy, geography, history, drawing; choral singing, the violin, the piano-forte; and exercises in teaching.

It often happened, that many young men who had presented themselves at these entrance examinations have been rejected, as not having made sufficient progress in their studies, even when there still remained several unoccupied vacancies in the establishment, which the director was desirous of filling up. But the maxim in Prussia is, that it is better to have no teacher, than to have an incapable or an immoral one.

As soon as a candidate has been admitted into the Weissenfels College, he is required, with the approbation of his parent, or guardian, to bind himself by writing.

* The yearly cost of this institution is but about twenty-eight hundred and forty dollars. The director receives a salary of six hundred dollars, which enables him to live very comfortably, and to maintain his proper station, on a par with the burgher authorities, the clergyman, district judge, &c.

1st. During the first three years after leaving the normal college, to accept any situation in the county in which the college is situated, to which he should be presented by the county magistrates; and during these three years, to avoid all engagements which would prevent him fulfilling this condition.

2d. If he should not, during the first three years, accept any situation which the county magistrates offer him as soon as it is offered, to repay to the college all the outlay which was made by the institution, while he remained there, upon his maintenance and education.

The Prussian government has, however, enacted, that as long as any candidate, who has been educated at one of the normal colleges of a county, is unprovided with a situation, neither the county magistrates nor any parochial committee, nor any patron of a private school, shall elect any other person as a teacher, even although such person shall have obtained a diploma certifying his fitness to be a teacher.

The above-mentioned regulations are intended to prevent unprincipled men making use of the gratuitous education of the college, merely for their own advancement in life, without any intention of ever acting as teachers in the parochial schools of the county; to prevent the young men commencing to teach, before they have satisfied the magistrates of their fitness and capability; and to oblige the young and unpracticed teachers to begin their labors in the worse paid and poorer situations, from which they are afterward advanced to the more important and lucrative posts, if they prove themselves deserving of such advancement. Were it not for the former of these two regulations, the poorer situations would never be filled, while the worse paid teachers would seldom have any hopes of any advancement; and were it not for the latter, unprincipled men would be able to avail themselves of the gratuitous education of the college in order to prepare for more lucrative situations than those which the teachers generally occupy during the first three years after obtaining their diplomas.

At the time of my visit the students paid nothing for their lodgings or dinners; but they provided their own bread and milk for breakfasts and suppers, and for dinner, if they wished to eat bread with their meat. I inquired, if they could have what they liked for breakfasts and suppers, but the answer was, "No; we only allow milk and bread, as we wish to accustom them to the plainest fare, that they may never find the change from the normal college to the village school a change for the worse; but always one for the better." The young men furnished themselves with all the necessary class-books; but their instruction was entirely gratuitous; and, I believe, that the sum total, which a young student had to pay annually, exclusive of the cost of bread and milk for breakfasts and suppers, and of his clothes, did not exceed three pounds, so that there was nothing to hinder young men, of the humblest ranks of society, entering the college, and being educated there for the teachers' profession.

All the household duties (except preparing meals, making fires, and cleaning the house) were performed in turn by the young students themselves. Each young man had his appointed days, when he was expected to ring the bell for the different lectures and meals, to bring the letters from the post, to attend the sick, to carry the director's dinner to his room, to light the lamps, &c., &c. By the performance of these humble duties, and by their labor in the gardens, where they cultivate the vegetables for the use of the household, they learn to combine simplicity and humility with high mental attainments; and are taught to sympathize with the peasant class, with whom they are afterward called upon to mingle, and to whom, it is the principal duty of their lives, to render them good counsellors, instructors, and friends.

In summer, the first and second class of the students, attended each by a professor, make long walks into the country to botanize, for botany is studied carefully by all the teachers in Prussia, as they are required to teach at least the elements of this science to the children in the country parishes, in order to give them a greater interest in the cultivation of plants, and to open their eyes to some of those wonders of creation, by which they are more immediately surrounded.

A great deal of time is devoted to the musical part of the education of Prussian teachers, and the proficiency attained is perfectly astonishing. I was present at an exercise in musical composition in the Weissenfels College. It was the

second class that was examined, so that I did not see what the most proficient students were capable of performing. The musical professor wrote upon a blackboard a couplet from an old German song, which he requested the students to set to music. In ten minutes this was done, and though every composition was not equally good, yet, out of a class of twenty, I have six different pieces of music, the compositions of six of the students, which deserve no little praise for their harmony and beauty. The director afterward assembled all the professors and students of the college, in the hall, that I might hear them sing some of their national songs together. The performance was most admirable; the expression, time, and precision, with which they managed the great body of sound, which they created, was quite wonderful. My readers must remember, that every German child commences to learn singing as soon as it enters a school, or, in other words, when it is five or six years of age; that the young students continue the practice of singing and chanting from six years of age, until the time when they enter the normal colleges; and that during their residence there they daily practice the most difficult musical exercises, besides learning three musical instruments. It is not, therefore, surprising that they attain very remarkable proficiency. I have mentioned several times that every teacher in the normal colleges in Prussia (and the same is the case throughout Germany) is obliged to learn the violin and the organ. They are required to know how to play the violin, in order with it to lead the singing of the children in the parochial schools, as the Germans think the children can not be taught properly how to modulate their voices, without the aid of a musical instrument. They are required to learn the organ for a reason which I will now explain.

The German teachers, as I have before shown, have almost always some duties to perform, in connection with their respective places of religious worship. If the teacher is a Romanist, he is expected to attend upon the priests, to play the organ, and to lead the chanting and singing. If he is a Protestant, he has to give out the hymns, to play the organ, to lead the chanting and singing, and if the clergyman should be prevented officiating by illness, or any other cause, the teacher is expected to read the prayers, and in some cases also to read a sermon. This connection of the teachers and of the religious ministers is very important, as it raises the teachers' profession in the eyes of the poor, and creates a union and a sympathy between the clergy and the schoolmasters.

In order, therefore, to fit the teachers for these parochial duties, it becomes necessary for them to pay a double attention to their musical education, and particularly to render themselves proficient upon the organ.

Hence a traveler will find, in each of the German teachers' colleges, two or three organs, and three, four, and sometimes six piano-fortes, for they commence with practicing on this latter instrument, and afterward proceed to practice on the organ.

They had two organs in the Weissenfels Institution; one in the great lecture hall, and another in one of the largest of their lecture rooms.

As I have already mentioned, time-tables were hung up in different parts of the establishment, showing how the different hours of the day are to be employed. Before visiting any of the classes, the director took me to one of these tables, and said, "You will see from that table, how all the classes are employed at the present moment, so you can choose which you will visit." In this manner, I chose several classes one after the other, by referring to the table; and I invariably found them pursuing their allotted work with diligence, order, and quiet.

The education of the young students, during their three years' residence in the training college, is, as I have said, gratuitous. The young men are only required to pay part of the expenses of the board. Even this small expenditure is, in many cases, defrayed for them, so as to enable the poorest young men to enter the teachers' profession; for the Prussians think, that a teacher of the poor ought to be a man, who can thoroughly sympathize with the peasants, and who can associate with them as a friend and a brother; and that no one is so well able to do so as he, who has known what it is to be a peasant, and who has personally experienced all the wants, troubles and difficulties, as well as all the simple pleasures of a peasant's life. For these reasons, they have endeavored in many ways, to facilitate the admission of peasants into the teachers' profession. They

have founded, in the *superior schools*, a great number of free places, which are reserved expressly for boys of the poorest classes, who are unable to pay any thing for continuing their education, beyond the course of the primary schools. These places are generally awarded to the most advanced of the poorer scholars, who have creditably passed through all the classes of a primary school, and who are desirous of pursuing their education still further. This liberal and excellent plan enables a young man, however poor, to prepare himself for the admission examinations of the normal colleges.

But even if a young peasant is enabled to enter a normal college, there is still the expense of maintaining himself there; and this, unless provided for, would, in the case of most peasants, be an effectual bar to his entering the teachers' profession. To obviate this difficulty, the Prussians have founded, in each of their forty-two normal colleges, a certain number of what are called *stipendia*. These stipendia correspond with the foundations at our public schools. They are endowed places, intended for poor and deserving young men, who would not, without them, be able to bear the small expenses of residence in these institutions. These foundations or endowments are created, sometimes by charitable individuals, sometimes by municipal corporations, and sometimes by the government, but the object of them is always the same, viz.; the assistance of very poor young men of promising abilities, who are desirous of entering the teachers' profession, but who would not be able to aspire to it without such assistance. There are ten of these foundations in the Weissenfels Institution, varying in amount, and created, some by the municipal authorities of Weissenfels and other towns in the province, and others by private individuals.

The principal part of their instruction in pedagogy is reserved for their third year's residence in the normal college. They then begin to practice teaching at regular hours. One or two of the students, who have passed two years in the establishment, are sent daily into each of the five classes of the model school, each of which classes has a separate class-room assigned to it, where one of the five trained teachers of the model school is always engaged in instruction. Under the superintendence, and subject to the criticism and advice of these able teachers, the young students make their first attempts in class teaching. After they have attended these classes for some months and have gained a certain proficiency in class management and direction, they are allowed by turns to take the direction of the classes of the other school for children, which is attached to the institution. Here they are left more at liberty, and are subjected to no other *surveillance* than that of the casual visits of the director, or one of the superior professors, who pay occasional visits to the school, to see how the students manage their classes, and what progress they make in the art of teaching. They also attend, during their third year's residence, regular lectures given by the director on pedagogy; indeed, their principal employment during their last year's residence in the college is to gain an intimate acquaintance with both the theory and practice of this difficult art. With what success these labors are attended, all will bear witness who have had the pleasure of hearing the intelligent and simple manner, in which the Prussian teachers convey instruction to the children in the parochial schools. There are none of the loud, and illogical discourses, or of the unconnected and meaningless questions, which may be heard in many of our schools; but the teacher's quiet and pleasant manner, the logical sequency of his questions, the clearness and simplicity with which he expounds difficulties, the quickness of his eye in detecting a pupil who does not understand him, or who is inattentive, and the obedience of the children, never accompanied with any symptom of fear, show at once, that the Prussian teacher is a man thoroughly acquainted with his profession, and who knows how to instruct without creating disgust, and how to command respect without exciting fear.

There are three vacations every year in the Weissenfels College; one in August of three weeks, one at Christmas of two weeks, and one at Easter of three days' duration. Previous to each vacation, the young men are called together, when the director reads aloud a paper, containing the opinions of himself and the professors of the abilities, industry, and character of each student. Each young man is then required to write out the judgment, which has been passed upon himself. These copies are signed by the director, and are carried home by

the young men to be shown to their relatives. The students are required to present these copies to their religious ministers and to their parents, and to obtain their signatures, as a proof that they have seen them. They are then brought back, at the end of the vacation, to the normal college, and are delivered up to the director, that he may be satisfied, by the signatures, that their friends and religious minister have seen and examined them. It is not necessary to show how great a stimulus to exertion these written characters afford.

The following regulations are a literal translation of some, which are contained in a published description of the Weissenfels Institution, which was put into my hands by the director.

"Since the state considers the education of good teachers a matter of such great importance, it requires that all young students shall be removed from the establishment, concerning whom there is reason to fear that they will not become efficient schoolmasters. The following regulations are therefore made on this point:

"If at the close of the first year's course of study, it is the opinion of *all* the professors of the normal college, that any one of the students does not possess sufficient ability, or a proper disposition, for the profession of a teacher, he must be dismissed from the establishment. But if only *three* of the professors are of this opinion, and the fourth differs from them, they must inform the provisional authorities of their disagreement, and these higher authorities must decide. Should the unfitness of any student for the profession of a teacher be evident, before the end of his first year's residence in the normal college, the director must inform the young man's friends of this fact, in order that they may be enabled to remove him at once.

"If any student leaves the institution without permission before the end of his three years' course of study, and yet desires to become a teacher, he can not be admitted to the examination for diplomas sooner than the young men who entered the normal college when he did.

"In cases of theft, open opposition to the rules and regulations of the establishment, and, in general, in all cases of offenses which merit expulsion from the college, the superior authorities, or provincial committee, must carry such expulsion into execution."

When the young men have completed their three years' course of study in the Weissenfels College, they can present themselves for examination for a diploma. Until a student has gained a diploma, he can not instruct in *any* school, or in *any* private family. The knowledge that he has procured one, serves to assure every one that he is fitted for the right performance of his duties. If he can show this certificate, granted by impartial and learned men, after rigid inquiry into the merits of the claimant, every one feels that he is a man to be trusted and to be honored. It assures them that he entered the Weissenfels College with a high character, that he maintained it while there, and that he has attained that amount of knowledge which is required of all elementary school teachers.

A young man who has not been educated in the Weissenfels College may obtain a diploma if he can pass the examination, and can furnish the county magistrates with the following certificates:

1st. A certificate of a physician that he is in perfect health, and has a sound constitution.

2d. An account of his past life composed by himself.

3d. Certificates from the civil magistrate of his native town or village, and from the religious minister under whose care he has grown up, of the blameless character of his past life, and of his fitness, in a moral and religious point of view, to take a teacher's situation.

The committee of examiners at the Weissenfels Institution consists of Dr. Zerrener, the educational councillor (schulrath) of the provincial school committee under which the normal college is ranged; of Dr. Weiss, the educational councillor (schulrath) of the court of the county in which Weissenfels is situated; and of the director and professors of the normal college.

The examination is conducted by the professors in the presence of these two educational councillors; and when it is over, the young men receive their diplomas, marked "1," "2," or "3," according to their merits. Only those who

obtain the first kind, or those marked "1," are capable of being definitely appointed to a school; those who obtain either of the other kind of diplomas, can only take a situation on trial for one or two years; at the end of which time they are obliged to return again to the normal college, and to be re-examined, when they again receive diplomas, marked according to their merits, as before. Until a young man has obtained a diploma "1," he can not obtain an independent situation, and it sometimes happens that a young man returns three or four times to the normal college ere he can obtain a permanent appointment as a teacher.

The examinations at the Weissenfels College are very strict, and last for two days. The young men are examined both *viva voce* and also by writing in all the subjects of instruction in the college and the examinations are rendered all the more imposing by the presence of the two representatives of the Minister of Public Instruction. Religious instruction, history, (both sacred and profane,) music, (both theoretical and practical,) geography, (both topographical and physical,) grammar, arithmetic, mental calculation, mathematics, botany, natural history, and particularly pedagogy, are the subjects of this searching investigation. If the young candidate passes it creditably, his diploma is signed by the two representatives of the Minister, and by the professors of the establishment; and from that time forward he is a member of the profession of teachers. His long course of study is then at an end; the continual examinations to which he had been previously subjected are passed. He is, from that moment, the recognized servant of his country, which protects him and encourages his efforts.

But even after a teacher has obtained his diploma marked "1," and after he has been appointed to a permanent situation, the directors and professors of the college do not lose sight of him.

If they, or the inspectors of the county court, perceive that a teacher, after leaving the college, neglects to continue his education, or that he has forgotten any of the knowledge or skill he had acquired when there, they require him to return to the college for a few months or weeks, where he is made to attend the lectures and to submit to the discipline intended for the regular students. The county magistrates are empowered to provide for the support of his family, and for the management of his schools, during the time of his residence in the college.

The director of the college is directed to make at least one tour of inspection every year through the whole of the district, for which his normal college educates teachers, at the expense of the county magistrates, for the purpose of inspecting the progress and attainments, and of making inquiries about the character of the teacher, who have been educated in his college.

It is not necessary for me to point out how these different regulations tend to raise the character of the teachers' profession in Prussia, and to gain for them the estimation and respect of society. As it is laid down in one of the circular rescripts of the Prussian government, "the chief end of calling the teachers back to the normal colleges at intervals, is to increase the earnestness, zeal, and enthusiasm of the teachers in their duties; to regulate and perfect the character of the teaching in the village schools; to produce more and more conformity and agreement in the methods of instruction used in the schools; to make the teachers look upon the normal college as their common home, and the place to which they may all apply for advice, assistance, and encouragement; to make the professors of the college better acquainted with those parts of the education of teachers which particularly require their attention, and which are necessary to form efficient village school teachers; to inspire the professors of the normal college with a constant zeal in the improvement of the district in which their college is situated; and to impress upon the young students of the normal college, from their first entrance into it, a full sense of the importance of the work in which they are about to engage." Every one knows that any person, who is officiating as teacher, must necessarily be a learned and moral man. Every one knows that he has passed through a long course of education in religious and secular instruction, continuing from his sixth to his twentieth year; that he has passed two or three different severe examinations with honor; that he is well versed in Scripture history, in the leading doctrines of his religion, in the history of Germany, in the outlines of universal history, in geography, and in arithmetic; that he is a

good singer and chanter; that he can play the organ, piano-forte, and violin; that he is acquainted with the elements of the physical sciences, with natural history, and botany; and that he is profoundly versed in the science which is more peculiarly his own, viz., that of pedagogy. I have already said, that it is no uncommon thing for a Prussian teacher to be acquainted with the Latin language, that very many speak and read French fluently, and that not a few can also, at least, read English. Now, I do not ask whether we have a class of *village* teachers who can be compared to these men, for it would be ridiculous to put such a question; but, I ask, have we *any* set of teachers in the country, who, in *general* attainments, can bear comparison with them? Very few of the masters of our private schools are gentlemen who have been educated at our universities; but of even those who have been brought up at our great seats of learning, I would ask any university man, whether one man in ten receives any thing like so general an education as the Prussian schoolmasters must have obtained, in order to enable them to pass the examination for diplomas? Do the students at our universities generally learn any thing of church history, of music, or of physical geography? Do they learn even the outlines of universal history? Are they acquainted with botany or natural history? Do many study carefully the history of their own country or its geography? Do any of them know any thing of pedagogy? If not, where shall we find a class of teachers of even the children of our gentry nearly so highly educated as the Prussian parochial schoolmasters?

SEMINARY

FOR

TEACHERS OF THE CITY SCHOOLS,*

AT BERLIN, IN PRUSSIA.

THIS is one of the more recently erected seminaries, and its objects are declared to be—first, to educate teachers for the city schools; second, to enable teachers to advance in their vocation, by providing them with lectures, and with a library; and third, to enable candidates for the ministry to become somewhat acquainted with the art of teaching, as they are required, subsequently, to act as inspectors of the schools. The first of these is the main object of the institution. The teachers to be furnished are, in general, of the grade required for the burgher schools. This, with its location in the city, renders the general plan of this school different from that already described. The care taken in the selection of the directors of the normal schools prevents the necessity for minute regulations, and does what no regulation can—namely, infuses the proper spirit. Hence, there will always be found differences in the minute details of these institutions, which may not, however, be essential.

The director of this seminary† is also the head of the school of practice attached to it, and already described. There are, besides him, eight teachers for both the school and seminary. The pupils of the latter are about fifty in number.

The pupils generally live out of the seminary, there being accommodations but for sixteen or eighteen within the buildings. It is an important question whether the method of boarding the pupils in or out of the house shall be adopted in these institutions, and I believe that it has been rightly solved, both at Weissenfels and here, adopting in the former school the method of collecting the pupils, and in the latter, of allowing them to dwell apart.

The conditions for admission are nearly those, as to certificates, age, and qualification, of the Weissenfels school, taking as the standard of qualification the attainments of pupils from the preparatory department. Thus, eighteen years is the general age of admission, and the applicants must present to the school-board of the province certificates of baptism, of having attended the first communion, of having attended school, of moral conduct, of good health, and that their parents or guardians will support them while at the seminary. The candidates are expected to be prepared for examination on the principal parts of the Bible and the chief truths of Christianity, and to be acquainted with some of the principal church songs; to express themselves correctly in words and in writing, and to have a good knowledge of the etymology of the German language; to understand the ground rules of arithmetic, proportions, and fractions, and the elements of form in geometry; to possess a competent knowledge of geography and history; to know the use of mathematical instruments, and to have an elementary knowledge of music. The school does not professedly maintain any pupil while receiving instruction, but assists some of those of the second year who are meritorious, and makes a further advance to those of the third year who have shown themselves worthy of their calling.‡

* From Bache's Education in Europe.

† Dr. Diesterweg.

‡ This may amount to sixty dollars yearly. The boarders at the school pay but three dollars and thirty-seven cents per quarter for their lodging. An entrance fee of twelve dollars is paid, which exempts the pupil from further charges for instruction.

The courses are of three years' duration, of which the first is entirely occupied with revising and extending the attainments of the pupil: the second is, in part, devoted to teaching, but under the inspection of the director; and the third is mainly filled up with teaching in the school attached to the seminary, or others of the city. This arrangement is intended, first, to secure a due amount of scholarship on the part of the pupils; and next, to make practical teachers of them. The first essays in their art are made under close supervision; and subsequently, the independent teaching affords them opportunities for comparing the theoretical principles which are inculcated in the lectures at the seminary with their daily observation; and the communication of their remarks in meetings with the director gives them the advantage of his experience in guiding their observation.

The scope of the instruction here does not differ essentially from that at Weissenfels, the subjects being reproduced in a different form. The following table gives the names of the branches, with the time occupied in each of the classes, the third class being the lowest. The course of each class is a year in duration.

The hours of duty are from seven in the morning until noon, and from two in the afternoon until four for the second and third classes, with few exceptions. The first class receive their instruction from half past five until half past seven in the evening, except on Wednesday and Saturday. Wednesday is a half-holiday for the lower classes, as well as Saturday.

The religious instruction is given by a clergyman. The physical education is left much to the discretion of the young men, at least in case of those who live out of the seminary. The school is deficient, as the one already described, in the means of illustrating the courses of natural philosophy and natural history, but the pupils may have access to the natural history collections of the university.

TABLE OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AMONG THE DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENTS AT THE BERLIN SEMINARY.

Subjects of study, &c.	HOURS PER WEEK.		
	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.
Pedagogy	2		
Practice	1	4	
Religious Instruction	1	2	3
Theory of Music		1	1
Vocal Music	1	3	5
German Language		2	6
Reading		2	2
Arithmetic		3	4
Geometry		2	2
Geography		1	2
History		1	2
Zoology		2	2
Mineralogy		2	2
Physics		2	2
Drawing	2	2	2
Writing		1	2
Playing the Violin		3	3

The method of instruction, as in the other school, is mainly by lecture, with interrogations. The inductive system is followed in the mathematical branches.

NORMAL SCHOOLS

FOR

FEMALE TEACHERS IN PRUSSIA

THE school system of Prussia, as well as the European system of public instruction generally, is defective in its provision for female education beyond the lowest grades of schools. While boys are highly instructed in language, the elements of science, and the principles of the useful arts, in public schools of a higher grade, the girls, except those of the wealthy and aristocratic classes, are entirely neglected. This has had the effect to open a chasm, broad and deep, between the intelligence and intellectual capabilities of the two sexes—has weakened the power and influence of woman on society—has narrowed the circle of a mother's teaching at home, and shut her out from the wide and appropriate field of employment as a teacher in every grade of public and private schools. The most valuable contribution now making by our American, and especially our New England experience, to the advancement of public education, is the demonstration of the wisdom of giving to every girl, rich or poor, and whatever may be her destination in life, an education which shall correspond, in amount and adaptation, to that given to boys in the same school—and particularly, to such as show the requisite tact, taste, and character, an appropriate training for the employment of teaching. Our experience has shown not only the capacity of woman, but her superiority to the male sex, in the whole work of domestic and primary instruction,—not only as principal teachers of infant and the lowest class of elementary schools, but as assistants in schools of every grade in which girls are taught, and as principal teachers, with special assistance in certain studies, in country schools generally. Their more gentle and refined manners, purer morals, stronger instinctive love for the society of children, and greater tact in their management, their talent for conversational teaching, and quickness in apprehending the difficulties which embarrass a young mind, and their powers, when properly developed, and sustained by enlightened public sentiment, of governing even the most wild and stubborn dispositions by mild and moral influences—are now generally acknowledged by our most experienced educators. Let this great fact be once practically and generally recognized in the administration of public schools in Europe, and let provision be made for the training of female teachers on a thorough and liberal scale, as is now done for young men, and a change will pass over the whole face of society.

Until within ten years no attempt was made to train females for the employment of teaching, except in certain convents of the Catholic church, where the self-denying life which the rules of their establishment

require, and the excellent education there given, are an admirable preparation for the important duties which many of the sisters are called upon to perform as teachers in schools for the poor, as well as for boarding-schools connected with their religious houses.

In 1840, for the first time, a seminary for female teachers, governesses, or rather a seminary course, was established at Marienweider, in the province of Prussia, in connection with a high school for young ladies, instituted by Alberti. The course is for two years. Candidates must be sixteen years of age, must be confirmed, and pass a satisfactory examination in the branches taught in common schools. Instruction is given in French, English, and Italian languages, as well as in the German literature and language, arithmetic, history, geography, natural sciences, music, history of art and esthetics, including drawing, sketching, &c., as well as in the theory and practice of teaching. The charge for tuition and residence can not exceed four thalers a month, and this is reduced according to the circumstances and continuance at the seminary of the pupils. In 1847, there were twenty-two pupils.

In 1841, a class of female teachers was instituted in connection with the celebrated "Diaconissen Anstalt," at Kaiserswerth, erected by Mr. Fleidner. The course for elementary schools occupied two years. In addition to the studies pursued at Marienweider, instruction is given in domestic economy and household work. Practice in teaching is had in the orphan and hospital schools, and the elementary school of the great establishment. In 1848, there were eighty-five pupils, forty-four of whom were destined for infant and industrial schools.

The "school for deaconesses," at Kaiserswerth, on the Rhine, was instituted by Rev. Thomas Fleidner, the pastor of its small Protestant parish, who seems to be acting in a new sphere of Christian benevolence with the spirit of Franké. The main object of the institution was to train females of the right spirit—females who are willing to consecrate a portion of their lives in humility and love to the service of their fellow-creatures, for Christ's sake—to the practical duties of the sick room. The original plan has been extended so as to embrace a Normal department for training young women of the same spirit for teachers of infant schools, as well as an asylum for erring. It is conceived in the spirit, and to some extent, formed on the model of some of the orders of sisters of charity, in the Catholic church. It presents a new application of the principle, and illustrates in a beautiful manner the importance, of Normal or professional training in every department of life which involve art and method.

In 1846, a Seminary for female teachers was established in connection with a new Institution for young ladies, in Friedrickstadt, Berlin. The course extends through two years, and includes the branches and practical exercises before specified. In all teachers intended for governesses, particular attention is paid to music, drawing, and the Italian and French languages, as well as to the literature of the German.

That the art of teaching, as now practiced in the primary schools of Prussia, was but imperfectly understood by her schoolmasters only a quarter of a century ago, and that a knowledge of good methods was diffused throughout the kingdom only by the well directed efforts of the government, sustained by the self-denying and persevering labors of school officers and educators, in various directions, is evident from the following note appended to Prof. Stowe's address on Normal Schools and Teachers' Seminaries. The noble sentiment of Dinter, quoted by Prof. Stowe at the opening of his address, "I promised God, that I I would look upon every Prussian peasant child as a being who could complain of me before God, if I did not provide for him the best education, as a man and a Christian, which it was possible for me to provide," shows the spirit with which some of the school officers of Prussia have acted. We append a brief notice of this excellent man, and model school officer, together with many excellent suggestions by other eminent teachers and officers from other sections of Germany.

PRUSSIAN SCHOOLS, A FEW YEARS AGO.

The following questions and answers are from Dr. Julius's testimony, before the Committee of the British House of Commons, in 1834, respecting the Prussian School System.

"Do you remember, from your own knowledge, what the character and attainments of the schoolmasters were previous to the year 1819?"

"I do not recollect; but I know they were very badly composed of non-commissioned officers, organists, and half-drunken people. It has not risen like a fountain at once. Since 1770, there has been much done in Prussia, and throughout Germany, for promoting a proper education of teachers, and by them of children."

"In your own observation has there been any very marked improvement in the character and attainments of schoolmasters, owing to the pains taken to which you have referred?"

"A very decided improvement."

Dinter, in his autobiography, gives some surprising specimens of gross incapacity in teachers, even subsequent to 1819. The following anecdotes are from that interesting work, *Dinters Leben von ihm selbst beschrieben.*

In the examination of a school in East Prussia, which was taught by a subaltern officer dismissed from the army, the teacher gave Dinter a specimen of his skill in the illustration of Scripture narrative. The passage was Luke vii., the miracle of raising the widow's son at Nain. "See, children (says the teacher), Nain was a great city, a beautiful city; but even in such a great, beautiful city, there lived people who must die. *They brought the dead youth out.* See, children, it was the same then as it is now—dead people couldn't go alone—they had to be carried. *He that was dead began to speak.* This was a sure sign that he was alive again, for if he had continued dead he couldn't have spoken a word."

In a letter to the King, a dismissed schoolmaster complained that the district was indebted to him 200705 dollars. Dinter supposed the man must be insane, and wrote to the physician of the place to inquire. The physician replied that the poor man was not insane, but only ignorant of the numeration table, writing 200 70 5 instead of 275. Dinter subjoins, "By the help of God, the King, and good men, very much has now been done to make things better."

In examining candidates for the school-teacher's office, Dinter asked one where the Kingdom of Prussia was situated. He replied, that he believed it was somewhere in the southern part of India. He asked another the cause of the ignis-fatuus, commonly called Jack-with-the-lantern. He said they were specters made by the devil. Another being asked why he wished to become a schoolteacher, replied, that he must *get a living somehow.*

A military man of great influence once urged Dinter to recommend a disabled soldier, in whom he was interested, as a school-teacher. "I will do so," says Dinter, "if he sustains the requisite examination." "O," says the Colonel, "he doesn't know much about school-teaching, but he is a good, moral, steady man, and I hope you will recommend him to oblige me." *D.*—O yes, Colonel, to oblige you, if you in your turn will do me a favor. *Col.*—What is that? *D.*—Get me appointed drum-major in your regiment. True, I can neither beat a drum, nor play a fife; but I am a good, moral, steady man as ever lived.

A rich landholder once said to him, "Why do you wish the peasant children to be educated? it will only make them unruly and disobedient." Dinter replied, "If the masters are wise, and the laws good, the more intelligent the people, the better they will obey."

Dinter complained that the military system of Prussia was a great hinderance to the schools. A nobleman replied that the young men enjoyed the protection of the government, and were thereby bound to defend it by arms. Dinter asked if every stick of timber in a house ought first to be used in a fire-engine, because the house was protected by the engine? or whether it would be good policy to cut down all the trees of an orchard to build a fence with, to keep the hogs from eating the fruit?

SCHOOL-COUNSELOR DINTER.

Gustavus Frederick Dinter was born at a village near Leipsic, in 1760. He first distinguished himself as principal of a Teachers' Seminary in Saxony, whence he was invited by the Prussian government to the station of School-Counselor for Eastern Prussia. He resides at Konigsberg, and about ninety days in the year he spends in visiting the schools of his province, and is incessantly employed nearly thirteen hours a day for the rest of his time, in the active duties of his office; and that he may devote himself the more exclusively to his work, he lives unmarried. He complains that his laborious occupation prevents his writing as much as he wishes for the public, yet, in addition to his official duties, he lectures several times a week, during term-time, in the University at Konigsberg, and always has in his house a number of indigent boys, whose education he superintends, and, though poor himself, gives them board and clothing. He has made it a rule to spend every Wednesday afternoon, and, if possible, one whole day in the week besides, in writing for the press; and thus, by making the best use of every moment of time, though he was nearly forty years old before his career as an author commenced, he has contrived to publish more than sixty original works, some of them extending to several volumes, and all of them popular. Of one book, a school catechism, fifty thousand copies were sold previous to 1830; and of his large work, the School-Teacher's Bible, in 9 volumes 8vo, thirty thousand copies were sold in less than ten years.

He is often interrupted by persons who are attracted by his fame, or desire his advice; and while conversing with his visitors, that no time may be lost, he employs himself in knitting; and thus not only supplies himself with stockings and mittens, suited to that cold climate, but always has some to give away to indigent students and other poor people. His disinterestedness is quite equal to his activity, and of the income of his publications, he devotes annually nearly five hundred dollars to benevolent purposes. Unwearied industrious, and rigidly economical as he is, he lays up nothing for himself. He says, "I am one of those happy ones, who, when the question is put to them, 'Lack ye any thing?' (Luke xxii. 35), can answer with joy, 'Lord, nothing.' To have more than one can use is superfluity; and I do not see how this can make any one happy. People often laugh at me, because I will not incur the expense of drinking wine, and because I do not wear richer clothing, and live in a more costly style. Laugh away, good people; the poor boys, also, whose education I pay for, and for whom, besides, I can spare a few dollars for Christmas gifts, and new-year's presents, they have their laugh too."

Toward the close of his autobiography, he says respecting the King of Prussia, "I live happily under Frederick William; he has just given me one hundred

and thirty thousand dollars to build churches with in destitute places; he has established a new Teachers' Seminary for my poor Polanders, and he has so fulfilled my every wish for the good of posterity, that I can myself hope to live to see the time when there shall be no schoolmaster in Prussia more poorly paid than a common laborer. He has never hesitated, during the whole term of my office, to grant me any reasonable request for the helping forward of the school-system. God bless him! I am with all my heart a Prussian. And now, my friends, when ye hear that old Dinter is dead, say, 'May he rest in peace; he was a laborious, good-hearted, religious man; he was a Christian.'"

A few such men in the United States would effect a wonderful change in the general tone of our educational efforts.

EXAMINATIONS FOR THE OFFICE OF TEACHER.

In Prussia, the Government not only provides every facility for the professional education of all the teachers of her public schools, but prohibits any person from teaching as master or assistant, in any public school, who does not hold a certificate of fitness obtained by passing the examinations instituted by itself. These examinations are two. The first is for the position as assistant, and the second as principal.

I. The *first* examination takes place when the candidate has completed his seminary course, and is called *Entlassungsprufung*. It is conducted by the director and teachers of the seminary, each in his own branch, and superintended by the school committee of the province, assisted by the councilor of the department.

The certificates are of three grades, or degrees of merit: No. 1. "Very well qualified." No. 2. "Well qualified." No. 3. "Sufficiently qualified." As this classification is of great consequence to the future prospects of the candidates, the greatest care is taken to fix exactly the amount of performance which shall entitle the candidates to each of the grades respectively.

The subjects of examination are: 1. Religion. 2. German language. 3. Art of School-keeping. 4. Knowledge of our Country. 5. Arithmetic and Geometry. 6. Natural Knowledge. 7. Writing. 8. Drawing. 9. Singing and Theory of Music. 10. Organs.

The performance of the candidates under each of these heads is valued as "very good," "good," "sufficient;" and upon the aggregate of these separate valuations the grade of his certificates depends. No candidate can obtain a certificate No. 1, who has not obtained a "very good" in at least the three subjects, religion, German language, and arithmetic. Possessing the certificate of a first examination, the candidate can accept any appointment as assistant; and any time within three years, he is at liberty to throw up his place and quit the profession, by refunding the whole cost of his training in the seminary.

II. The *second* examination takes place at the end of the third, and before the expiration of five years from the time of passing the first examination. The assistant teacher must not wait to receive notice, but at the time and place appointed, with his first certificate in hand, must pre-

sent himself to the board of examiners, of which the departmental councilor is president. The examination turns wholly upon professional skill, and such subjects as the candidate was marked defective in, in his former examination. It is more a review of conduct than a test of attainment. So far as it is oral, it is dialogic; and each examiner follows out his own topic.

The examinations are both oral and written, and are not public, although the superintendent and any of the clergy of the department have a right to be present, and strangers may be introduced by the president.

III. Besides these two official examinations, which are obligatory, the trustees, or school board of particular schools or localities are authorized to institute further examinations, or to select from a number of candidates applying for a situation.

PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS.

After the teacher has pursued his seminary course, and passed his first and second examinations, he must improve such opportunities as are provided for extending his practical knowledge.

I. There are a series of periodical meetings, systematically arranged and constituted, which the public teacher must attend:

1. *Parochial Conference*—for all the elementary teachers of a parish, held once a month in the winter season, and presided over by the pastor of the parish.

2. *District Conference*—for the teachers of several neighboring parishes, combined into districts, held every two months in the summer season—under the presidency of a pastor nominated by the superintendent.

3. *Circle Conference*—for all the teachers of a circle, held twice a year, by the superintendent.

4. *Departmental Conference*—held once a year, under the presidency of the *schulrath* of the department.

5. *The Seminary Conference*—held annually for all the teachers, who live within six miles of a seminary, under the presidency of the director. Besides the other purposes of the conference, this meeting is intended to keep alive the connection between the schools and the seminary. And the same object is sought, by assigning to the director the duty of inspecting a certain number of schools in the department every year.

II. There are *Book Societies* or Unions, to which subscriptions are compulsory, and on the list of yearly purchases are placed at least a certain number of professional periodicals and treatises.

III. *Repetition Courses* are established in connection with several of the Normal Schools, for teachers who wish to return to develop and strengthen their training.

V. MILITARY SYSTEM AND EDUCATION IN HOLLAND.

I. MILITARY SYSTEM.

The regular army of Holland is divided into two portions—one of which takes all the ordinary duties of the Dutch possessions beyond the seas, while the other serves entirely in Europe. In the event of war, the Home army is liable to be sent to the support of the Colonial army; but except in such emergency, the officers and men of each portion are as distinct, almost, as though they composed parts of the military forces of two independent countries. The entire military force consists of the regular army of about 52,000 men, which can be swelled to twice that number in an emergency, by militia conscripts and reserve levies.

The Dutch Colonial Army consists of regiments of cavalry and artillery, as well as of infantry, of which the depots for recruiting as well as of arms, ammunition, and ordnance, are at home. But the service companies, when they have once embarked for their colonial stations, return no more as armed bodies—and even as individuals, neither officers nor men return until they have taken part in the avocations of colonial life.

The army of Holland, both in its European and colonial branches is recruited by voluntary enlistment. The term of service is six years, beyond which, however, the soldier not disqualified by loss of health, may remain. The service is not particularly attractive; neither the pay being large, nor promotion from the ranks rapid, or certain, the recruits are not drawn from the most intelligent, and enterprising classes. Still, as discipline is strictly enforced, and the natural courage of the Batavian race is good, there is seldom any outbreak or disorder.

II. MILITARY EDUCATION.

The officers, as a body, are well educated, and belong to the higher class of society, and before admission to the service, they must prove their qualifications by a rigid examination, which is practically competitive, as promotion is determined by the order of merit, as shown in the results. Preparation for the examination

could be made, till recently, (1.) either by joining the Cadet Corps as a volunteer, and after a specified term of service in the field, undergoing an examination in the studies, and practical knowledge required; or (2.) by going successfully through a regular course in the Military Academy at Breda. The army is now officered exclusively from the graduates of the Military Academy.

III. MILITARY ACADEMY AT BREDA.

The Military Academy at Breda, prepares officers for every branch of the service, and is well equipped in respect to buildings, and appliances of illustration and practice, as well as with numerous professors for doing its work as thoroughly as any school can which receives its pupils so young.

Within an extensive redoubt, separated from the town by a rampart and wet ditch, stands an old palace which the late King set apart as a college for officers. Here are good stables and an ample stud, a swimming school, and an extensive plateau, with cannon of every calibre, which supplies the means of drill applicable to each branch of service. The accommodation within doors is excellent. Youths, sleeping in long dormitories, are yet separated one from another by curtains, within which stand each inmate's iron bedstead, his little dressing-table, his basin, jug, clothes-press, and all other matters necessary to cleanliness and comfort. There is a spacious hall or day-room, besides a convenient dining-room, a good library, a well-stocked model-room, a small but judiciously selected museum of arms, with a good collection of minerals and fossils, of chemical and mechanical apparatus, &c. Finally, the class-books used in the place are compiled and arranged by the professors, and, in every branch of science and learning touched by them, appear well adapted to the purposes for which they are intended.

The establishment of the Breda Military Academy, when full, includes—besides the Governor, a major-general, and the Commandant, a colonel—an adjutant, a quarter-master, three captains of infantry, three of artillery, one of engineers, one of cavalry; five first lieutenants of infantry, two of cavalry, three of artillery, one of engineers; two second lieutenants of infantry, one of cavalry, one of artillery, and two of engineers—two medical officers and an apothecary. There are besides, of civilian professors and teachers, seven; and the place is capable of accommodating one hundred and ninety-two cadets. These, whether intended for the European or colonial branch of the service, live and pursue their studies together. The course comprises four years, during the first two of which, all the

cadets are educated together without reference to the specific corps or services for which they may be intended: but with the commencement of the third year, such as may be selected for the artillery or engineers pass into distinct classes, while the remainder go on, by a less abstrusely scientific course, to commissions in the cavalry or infantry.

The qualifications for admittance into the Academy are not extravagantly high. Youths seem to be eligible who can read, write, and spell their own language correctly—who are able to construe an easy Latin author, and exhibit some acquaintance with the French; who are advanced in arithmetic to vulgar fractions, can demonstrate an easy proposition in geometry, and are masters of the fundamental processes of algebra. During the two first years all are well instructed in history, geography, mathematics, fortification, the theory of projectiles, plan-drawing, the French and German languages. After this they break up, and pursue their peculiar studies in different rooms under different teachers. Their progress is tested by severe periodical examinations; according to the results of which, they are either advanced or held back. But as no second trial is granted in the examination for admittance, so two failures at any of the examinations which follow, insure dismissal from the Academy. Finally, prayers are read daily to the cadets in a large hall, where also, if the weather be unfavorable, one of the ministers from the town attends on Sunday to celebrate public worship. When the weather is fine the young men march to church—Protestants under their own officers to a Protestant place of worship—Roman Catholics under like surveillance to a Roman Catholic chapel.

Although the army is to some extent officered from the ranks for meritorious service, or from those who have performed duty in the field under a peculiar system of cadetship, as well as from the graduates of the Military Academy, it is proper to add, that no promotion can be made, or commission issued, until a satisfactory examination has been passed. The prospect of this examination keeps up the habit of professional study and reading, as well as a feeling of honorable rivalry among officers of the same grade.

VI. COMMON SCHOOLS IN CONNECTICUT.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

Continued from vol. xiii, p. 776.

PRIZE ESSAY

On the Necessity and Means of Improving the Common Schools of Connecticut.

THERE was a time when the Common Schools of Connecticut were esteemed the best in the world, and when Connecticut, on account of her system of public education, was the brightest spot in all Christendom. Connecticut gave to the world the first example of a government providing a munificent fund for the education of every child within its limits, and of securing the benefits of this provision equally and forever to the humblest as well as to the highest, to the poorest as well as to the richest. She connected with this fund a system of general and minute supervision, good for its time, to preserve the fund from abuse and misapplication, and to give thoroughness and efficiency to its actual workings. It was a system suited to the state of society then existing—to the staid and sober habits of the people. It answered in a good measure, its design. It made teachers and parents both feel their responsibility.

The results of this school system, were great and good. Every hamlet in Connecticut of no more than twenty houses, whether spread out upon the plain, or crowded into the valley, whether sprinkled along the sloping hill-side, or wedged in among the brown rocks of some wild ravine, could show its district school-house, which was regularly opened for many months in the year. There was hardly to be known the son or daughter of Connecticut, who could not read and write. It was the rarest of all things to see one who had not received a good elementary education.

This was reported to the honor of Connecticut throughout the Christian world. The lover of his race, who had been rewarded for his zeal for the elevation of his countrymen, by a life-lease in a Prussian or Austrian dungeon, saw his prison wall all light about him when he thought of the one government in the world that had provided efficiently for the education of the humblest child, and gathered hope for the time, when his government and all governments should do the same. The surly and prejudiced Englishman, when he had said all the hard things that he could think of about America and the Yankees, could always be floored by one argument, and that was the Connecticut School Fund contrasted with the national debt of Great Britain. In our own Union, the other states were reproved

for their negligence, and spurred on to their duty by the example of what Connecticut had been the first to perform. The emigrant mother in Vermont or Western New York, as she looked around upon her untaught boys and girls, sighed for the schools of Connecticut and was ready to exchange the rich fields that were beginning to look so luxuriant about her, for the most rocky farm within the limits of a Connecticut school district.

But within the last twenty years a change in all these respects has taken place. Connecticut no longer holds the same high position which she once did. Austria and Prussia have provided their subjects with an efficient and successful Common School system. Other governments in Europe are slowly awaking to their duty and interest in respect to the same high matter. Despotism even is striving to make peace with its wronged and outraged subjects, by giving, in return for the civil rights which it withholds, the substantial blessings of universal education. Many of the states of our own Union are giving themselves to this cause with a zeal and energy which show them determined to make amends for past neglect and torpor. In Massachusetts, Ohio, New York, Georgia, Rhode Island, and many other states, vigorous and successful efforts are made. School funds are accumulated; taxes are readily imposed and cheerfully paid; Boards of Education are instituted; periodicals are circulated; public lectures are given; Normal Schools for the instruction of teachers are provided; teachers' conventions and Institutes are attended with zeal and profit. These, and other signs, show beyond question, that there is a strong movement in the public mind; that the people are being aroused. In some states and parts of states this interest is well-nigh enthusiastic.

But Connecticut! where is Connecticut the mean while? Where is she, who was once the star of hope and guidance to the world? She was the first to enter the lists, and was the foremost in the race. Is she foremost now? Whatever may be the truth of the case, it is certain, that she is not thought to be in the other states. It is the general opinion, *out of Connecticut*, that she is doing little or nothing; and, whereas, a few years since, her name was mentioned in connection with Common Schools, with honor, only; it is now, in this connection, coupled with expressions of doubt and regret, and that by wise and sober men. Her large State endowment is described as having put her effectually asleep, as having sent her to "Sleepy Hollow," from the influence of which, when she is aroused for a moment, it is to talk of her noble School Fund and James Hillhouse, just as Rip Van Winkle did of his neighbors who had been dead forty years. The School Fund is quoted every where *out of Connecticut*,—we venture to say it is quoted in every other state in the Union, as a warning and example to deter them from giving the proceeds of their own funds, except only on the condition, that those who receive shall themselves, raise as much as they take, and report annually as to the results. Those who go from other states into Connecticut, can hardly credit the testimony of their own senses when they are forced

to believe the apathy that prevails. Every newspaper and lecturer *out of Connecticut*, high and low, ignorant and knowing, sneers at the Connecticut School Fund, and the present condition of the Connecticut schools.

Are the people of Connecticut aware that this is the case? Do they know what the people of other states think and say of them? Do they believe that what is thought and said is true and deserved? We can hardly believe that they are generally aware of the bad repute into which their schools have fallen. Or if they are informed in respect to it, they do not believe that they merit so bad a name. The majority are too well contented to leave their schools as they are. They persuade themselves that their school system works as well as any public school system can be expected to work; that notwithstanding all that may be said out of the state against the schools of Connecticut, these schools are better than those of any state in the Union. They are opposed to any agitation of the subject. They will give their hearts to no strong and united effort to improve their schools. On the other hand, those who know that our schools are inferior to those of some of the other states, and who see clearly, in the prevailing apathy, the certain signs of a still greater degeneracy, are almost discouraged to hope for any great and permanent improvement. Neither of these classes are wholly in the wrong, nor wholly in the right. It is not true, that the schools of Connecticut are as good as those of certain other states. It is not true, that our public school system is as good, or is managed as efficiently as the systems of many other states. There is not only danger, but a certain prospect, that if things remain as they are, the schools of Connecticut will degenerate still more, and Connecticut will be dishonored more and more, in the comparison with her sister republics. It is not true, indeed, that all the hard and contemptuous things that have been said about our schools and our school fund are just and deserved, but the facts can be brought to prove that there is too much ground for them, and that the public apathy on this subject is inexcusable and fraught with evil.

But we would not despair. Connecticut though slow to move, moves sure and strong when she is aroused. She is cautious and prudent, but when she sees the reasons for a change she will change in earnest. We have too much love for our native state to be willing to despair. We believe that she is still the soundest at heart of any state in the Union, and that on this subject, she will show herself worthy of her ancient reputation. In the hope of contributing to this end, the following remarks are offered in respect to the present condition of the Public Schools of Connecticut, and the remedy which may be employed with the hope of success.

What then is the condition of the Common Schools of Connecticut? Facts are stubborn things. We present the following, in which the contrast is strikingly exhibited:

First, as to appropriations for school purposes. Money is the sinews of education as of war. The willingness to appropriate money shows zeal for any cause. Connecticut, in 1795, set apart for schoo

purposes a large and increasing fund for the support of schools, which now amounts to $2,070,000, and divides $1·40 for every scholar between the age of 4 and 16. Besides this, there are the town deposit-fund and local funds. Instead of annexing to the reception of their annual dividend the condition of raising a specified sum, the annual taxation was gradually diminished, till in 1822 it ceased altogether. In 1845, it is not known that a single town or school society in the state, raised a tax for school purposes by voluntary taxation. In a few of the large city districts, a small property-tax is collected, and applied to the wages of teachers, but not amounting in the whole state to $9,000, or 3 cents to each inhabitant, or 10 cents, to each child between the ages of 4 and 16.

Massachusetts and New York, as the capital and dividend of their school funds have increased, have, at the same time, increased the sums to be raised as a condition of receiving the dividend of their funds. From 1835 to 1845, the capital of the Massachusetts Fund was increased from $500,000 to $800,000. During the same period the amount annually raised in towns by tax, for the wages of teachers, has advanced from $325,320 to near $600,000. The statute of 1839 requires that $1·25, for every child between the ages of 4 and 16, should be raised and actually expended for the purposes of instruction in each town, whereas, more than $3·00 for every child of the above age was actually raised by tax in 1845 in 53 towns, more than $2·00 in 190 towns, and $2·99 is the average through the state. $2·99 is the average in Massachusetts and 10 cts. in Connecticut. It is instructive to look over the list of towns as arranged in the school returns of Massachusetts for 1846. The town standing first is a new town just out of Boston, which raises $7·64. The town numbered 8 is an unpretending agricultural town in Worcester county, which raises $4·82. The town numbered 30, a small town, raises $3·77. The town numbered 280 raises by tax $1·43 per scholar, which is 3 cts. more than every scholar in Connecticut *receives* from the School Fund.

In New York, when the legislature in 1838, virtually increased the capital of the School Fund from $2,000,000 to near $6,000,000, the obligation on the part of the towns, to raise an amount equal to that distributed was not removed. Thus, while the appropriation by the state was increased from $100,000 in 1835, to $275,000 in 1845, the amount required to be raised by tax in the towns increased in the same proportion, viz., from $100,000 to $275,000, and the amount voluntarily raised by the towns and districts in 1845, more than quadrupled the amount raised in the same way in 1835.

In Rhode Island, the state appropriation has increased from $10,000 in 1829 to $25,000 in 1845, while the towns in 1829 received the state appropriation unconditionally, but are now required to raise a third as much as they receive.

In Maine, 40 cts. must be raised for every inhabitant, which is perhaps more than is required in any other of the New England states.

Second, as to the supervision of schools. The first effort, to set apart a class of officers for the special duty of visiting schools and ex

amining teachers, was made by Connecticut in the school law of 1798, and there Connecticut has left the matter, except that the towns may now make returns to the commissioner of the School Fund, who is also superintendent of the schools. In the mean time other states have taken the suggestion from Connecticut and improved upon it. Massachusetts has a state Board of Education, with one individual devoting his whole time to collecting facts and diffusing information for the improvement of schools. New York has not only a state superintendent, but a school officer for each county, and a superintendent for each town. $28,000 was paid in 1844 as salaries to the county superintendents. Vermont and Rhode Island have recently adopted the system of state, county, and town superintendents.

Third, as to the education and improvement of teachers. The first elaborate effort to call public attention in this country to the importance of Normal schools or teachers' seminaries, was made by Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, in a series of essays published in Hartford, in 1825. Massachusetts put this idea into actual being. By the offer of $10,000 from Hon. Edmund Dwight, of Boston, the legislature unanimously appropriated an equal amount for the annual expense of three Normal schools for three years, and at the close of the third year, provision was made for the erection of buildings and the permanent support of these schools. In New York, a State Normal School has been established in Albany, and $10,000 annually appropriated for this object.

The first assembly of teachers, like those now known as Teachers' Institutes, ever held in this country, was held at Hartford in 1839, and it is believed to have been the last but one held in Connecticut. This important agency has since been introduced into New York, Ohio, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont. In New York more than 6,000 teachers assembled in the different counties in the autumn of 1845. In Massachusetts, $2,500 have been appropriated by the legislature for their encouragement during the current year.

Fourth, School-houses. The first essay which is known to have been prepared to expose the evils of school-houses badly constructed, warmed, lighted, and ventilated, was read at a state Convention of the friends of education in Hartford, in 1830; and for nearly 9 years after, five school-houses only in the state are known to have been repaired and built in accordance with its suggestions. The same essay was read and published in Boston in 1831, and was followed by immediate attention to the subject in different parts of the state. In 1838, a new impulse was given to this kind of improvement by Mr. Mann's Report on the subject, and from that time till 1844, the amount of $634,326 was expended for the construction and permanent repairs of school-houses. Within the past two years, one-third of the school districts of Rhode Island have repaired old school-houses or constructed new ones after improved plans. Since 1838, more than $200,000 has been expended in this way.

Fifth, School-libraries. The first *juvenile library* perhaps in the world was established in Salisbury, Conn., more than half a century

since, and the originator of the school district library enterprise was a native of this state. This is about all that Connecticut is known to have done in this department. In 1838 New York appropriated a sum equal to about $5 for every school district, or $53,000 for the whole state, on condition that a like amount should be raised by the several towns, both sums to be spent in the purchase of books for school district libraries. Six years after this law passed there were more than one million and a half of volumes scattered through every neighbourhood of that great state. Massachusetts, for one year, appropriated the income of its school fund for this object on certain conditions, and at this time every school district is supplied with a library open to all the children and adults of the community.

We adduce these statistics as testimony concerning the degree of interest which is felt in Connecticut on this subject, compared, with the zeal that prevails in the above named states. We discuss not here, the importance or the wisdom of these measures. We have other testimony still more direct. It comes from the people themselves. Let any man study the returns of the school visitors as reported to the legislature in 1845, let any man study the reports now on file in the Commissioner's office for the year just closing, and he will receive one uniform and desponding confession in respect to the apathy that prevails—like an atmosphere of death. Particular defects are named and remedies are suggested, but the want of public interest is uniformly named as the worst and most disheartening evil. Then let him contrast these returns with those of many other states, and what a change will he notice. On the one hand is heard the voice of declension and despondency, on the other, the language of progress and hope.

But this does not exhaust the evidence. Those who go from Connecticut into other states, and from them into Connecticut, feel a shock in the transition. It is like going from a cellar into the sunshine, or from the sunshine into a cellar. We know an intelligent gentleman who has seen his scores of years, who has recently removed from Rhode Island into the "land of steady habits," and can hardly understand or believe that the apathy which he finds, can be a reality. The writer has within a few years made the change the other way, from Connecticut to the Bay State. He too has been forcibly impressed with the contrast. In one particular, this contrast is very striking. In Connecticut, the people have been persuaded, that to be taxed for the support of Common Schools, is a levy upon the poor, for the schools of the rich. In Massachusetts, the people *know* that all such taxes are a lawful tribute from the rich, for the benefit of the poor. We have seen in the latter state, in a crowded town meeting, a thousand hands raised as by magic, to vote the largest of two sums named by the school committee, a sum which was nearly a dollar for every individual of the entire population, men, women and children. The motion was made by one of the wealthiest men in the town, whose own children were too old to attend the public school. It was supported by others wealthier than he, and having no interest

of their own in the schools. A proposition to set apart five hundred dollars as a fund to be distributed to the feebler districts, at the discretion of the town committee, was moved in the same way, and carried without the show of opposition. In the same town, the year following, the school tax was increased by two thousand dollars, though the most important district had ten days before taxed itself nearly nine thousand dollars for land and a building for a high school. This occurred in a town by no means the foremost to engage in school improvements, and not even now the most conspicuous for its zeal or its expenditures. In Lowell, Salem, Worcester, Springfield, Roxbury, and in towns of less importance, the public school-houses are the best buildings in the town, inviting without for their aspect of beauty and solidity, and within for their convenient apartments and their abundant apparatus. We have seen something of the working of this school system for years. We have observed the conscientious and honorable pride felt in the public schools, by those influential for wealth and talent, who give to these schools their influence, and send to them their sons and daughters. What is of far more consequence and interest, we have freely mingled in the families of those in humbler life, and learned from the lips of parents their high sense of the value of these schools which cost them little or nothing, and which promised to give their children all the education which they desired. We have heard from the mother of a large family of boys, hearty regrets, that her sons must be removed from the school by the departure of the family from town. Seeing these things, we could not but conclude that public schools may attain high perfection, and that such schools are the choicest of earth's blessings.

But this introduces the second and the most important of our inquiries—"What can be done to improve the public schools of Connecticut?" It is of little use to conclude that these schools sadly need such improvement, if no remedy can be devised. To summon a counsel of ill-natured and desponding physicians, rather hurts than helps the patient, if all that they can do is to find fault by his bedside. It is with diffidence, yet with strong conviction that we make the following suggestions:

The friends of Common Schools should not place their main reliance on legislative enactments and influence. Not that legislative action if united and hearty, is not most desirable; not that a well digested reform of the school laws is not called for; nor again that if it could be secured and made permanent it would not be a most important step towards final success. But what if such action is not to be hoped for? What shall be done? Shall we say that nothing can be done? This has been said too long already. The common feeling has been that until the legislature should move, to an entire change in the school law, nothing is to be hoped for. The guilt o the public neglect and the excuse for the general apathy have been a carried to the doors of the government and left there, as if nothing could be done without its aid. This is a false view of the case. Important as legislative action may be, of itself it can accomplish lit-

tle. It must be carried home by the awakened zeal of the people It is the sign and stimulant of the public mind aroused. To effect such action, if it shall ever be effected, the public feeling must call with a commanding voice. In the states in which so much has been done, in connection with a revisal of their school system, the interest has not so much been created by the new laws, as it has itself created them. The laws have been the product of the zeal of the public, which zeal has itself given life and efficiency to the laws. In Rhode Island, where, at this moment, there is going forward a most enthusiastic movement for Common Schools, it is carried forward by individual agency and expense, seconded by school laws indeed, but borne forward by the people, as one of the mighty swells of their own ocean lifts the stranded vessel from the beach.

The main reliance in Connecticut, as in other states, must be placed on the waking of the public mind, by the ordinary means of moving this mind. The press must be enlisted; vigorous pens must be set in motion; all political parties must lend their aid; lecturers must be employed; conventions must be held; the pulpit must speak out, till a conscience shall be created and aroused in respect to the duties of Christains towards the neglected and half heathenized population in their midst. Facts—facts, on this subject can be made to speak, as they are uttered by zealous but fair minded men. The truth of the case can be demonstrated till no man shall dare to deny it, that Connecticut is far behind her sister states in this matter, and will soon be still farther in the rear. If this is evaded or denied, it can be proved. All this will involve expense and self-denial, and difficulties, and discouragements. But without this active agency no change is to be hoped for. The agency must be sustained; the expense must be incurred, and the agitation must be prosecuted.

But what specific plan shall be urged? What shall it be proposed to effect? What principles shall be aimed at, asserted and raised upon our banner? In answer, we say,—Popular education is no longer a theory;—it has been tested and determined by experiment. The principles which a public school system must involve, have been settled by trial. These must enter into every plan that will work with success. They may be reached in different methods, but they must be reached in some way or the plan will fail. What are these principles? We answer:—

First. A thorough examination and supervision of the teachers and the schools by competent and faithful men. Teachers of common schools are the servants of the public. In Connecticut, they are mainly supported from the public funds. They receive from the State, year by year, more than one hundred and fifteen thousand dollars. Let them be held to a real and rigid responsibility for their qualifications for their place, and for the fulfillment of its duties.—There is not a turnpike company in Connecticut which yields a revenue of a hundred dollars the year, for whose control and supervision a commissioner is not appointed—whose services the company are required to pay Not a Bank is left unvisited by a commissioner

to inspect its books and supervise its proceedings. Nay, not an individual is allowed to practice the simple business of a measurer of land, before he has been examined by the County Surveyor, and received a license from him, for which license he must pay the fees. Not a physician, nor clergyman, nor lawyer, is allowed the privileges or emoluments of his profession, till he has been examined and licensed by some individual, or body of men. Why are not the teachers of the public schools subjected to the same necessity?—to an examination which shall express the solemnity of the trust committed to their hands, and the importance of the profession to which they are admitted? Would the hardship be intolerable and excessive—would it be a hardship at all, if every man who proposes to teach, was first required to obtain a license from one or more commissioners in his county, or senatorial district, for which he himself should pay? The present system of examination does not answer the object which it was intended to accomplish. It is the testimony of by far the majority of the Boards of Examiners in the state, that it is little more than a form, and often no better than a farce. A young man wishes to obtain fifty or one hundred dollars by keeping a winter school. He goes boldly to the committee, for he knows they will find it hard to refuse him permission—for the committee consists of the clergyman to whose parish he belongs, and who will be slow to think him unqualified, as common schools go; of the physician, who will not like to offend the young man's parents; and of the lawyer, who is looking to political promotion. However conscientious or faithful this committee may desire to be, it is hard for them often to know what to decide. The examination of teachers is not their business, and they have framed no fixed standard by which to judge. Their duties are thankless duties—a favor done to the public, rather than a trust for which they are held responsible, and their field is so limited that they cannot give to it earnest and devoted energy.

Let the change proposed be introduced. Let the candidate be obliged to go out of his native town for his license. Let him know that he is to be examined in the presence of twenty or fifty other candidates, and by those who have no partiality for him, arising from personal acquaintance; and to be qualified to teach a winter school, would be thought a graver matter than it now is. The profession would be elevated at once. A higher grade of qualifications would be sought for and attained. There would be that dignity and pride attached to the calling of a teacher, which is secured by an honorable admission through a difficult entrance. And this need not cost the state a dollar.

If to the same commissioners should be intrusted the duty of visiting the schools within a given district, another advantage would be gained. In passing from one school to another, they would have room for comparison, and a field for suggestions. They could meet the teachers of each town in friendly and profitable interviews. They could confer with the town committees, and visit the schools with

hem; to receive and give light in respect to the wants of each town, and the remedies for these defects. The friends of education, the benevolent and the public-spirited, would look to them with hope and confidence, and would gather around them to aid and encourage them. The expense for this service need not be great. We take it for granted, that a school visitor has as good right to be paid for his time and labor, as a fence viewer, or pound keeper. If the school visitors should relinquish their duty to them in whole or in part, and with it the pay which they ought to receive, and in some cases do receive, the additional cost of this arrangement would not be great. But what if, perchance, it should cost something? It is worth something. It would be a reproach to the memory of his fathers, for a Connecticut man to think otherwise. It would be a slander on the founders of the School Fund, who thought two millions not too great a sum to set apart for common education, to say that it was not worth the while to pay something to make its blessings more valuable and certain.

We make this suggestion with more confidence, when we remember, that it was the opinion of one of the most sagacious men that Connecticut ever boasted, that the appointment of County Commissioners to perform the services specified, would be the crowning feature to perfect the Connecticut School System.

Second. Teacher's Institutes may be held throughout the State and that also, without delay. These are conventions for mutual improvement and excitement. They may be also called travelling Teachers' seminaries.—These have been held in other states with the most striking results. The idea was indeed conceived in Connecticut, years ago, and was tried on a small scale for two years in succession. At a place and time previously agreed upon, the teachers within a given district are invited to be present, to spend a week or more in convention. The time is employed in discussing the best methods of teaching reading, writing, &c., and the various points connected with school discipline. What is more to the point, lessons are given in these various branches, and those whose business it is to teach, receive instruction from eminent and experienced instructors. We noticed in a recent account of one of these Institutes, that a distinguished elocutionist and teacher of reading was present, and gave a course of lessons. We doubt not that every teacher who read with him, or who heard others read, for several days, will read the better all his life, and that the reading in the scores of schools there represented, has received an impulse for the better for the few days spent at that Institute. The same benefit might be looked for from the presence of teachers in simple drawing, writing, and arithmetic. At these meetings, experienced teachers give the results of their various methods, of their many mistakes, and the ways in which they were corrected. Here raw and timid teachers are initiated into their new business; older teachers receive valuable suggestions, which their experience and their sense of want, enable them at once to understand and to apply; self-conceited teachers are forced to let go some of their old notions, and to grow wiser as they compare

themselves with those who know more than themselves. An enthusiasm in their business is excited. They are impressed with right views of the dignity and solemnity of their employment. They form new and strong attachments, and from these interesting and exciting scenes, they go fresh and cheerful to the labors of the season, furnished with valuable knowledge. These Institutes differ from ordinary conventions, in that they furnish definite business, and are spent in gaining real knowledge. They are not wasted in idle harangues and fine speeches. They continue long enough to lay out much real work, and to accomplish it. They furnish a model for Town Associations, and the teachers who have felt the advantages of these larger meetings, continue their influence, by repeating the same thing on a smaller scale. So important have they been found to be by trial, that in the year 1845 a friend of education in Massachusetts gave one thousand dollars to defray the expenses of a series of these meetings, and the legislature of that state, during its session now just expiring, appropriated two thousand five hundred dollars for the curren year, to enable the teachers of the state to avail themselves of these advantages.

Let these Institutes be held in Connecticut with no delay. Le them be carried into all parts of the state. Let them be made interesting by providing able assistants, and by the co-operation of the friends of education, each in their own district. Let some provision be made by the liberal, that the expense attending them shall not be too burdensome. This experiment can be made without any legislative countenance. It needs only a willing heart, and a ready hand. Let it be made thoroughly in all parts of the state, and let it be seconded, as it can be, and as it *must* be, in order to be successful, and it will do much to kindle zeal and to create hope for our common schools. It is simple, voluntary, practicable, and cheap. Let it be tried, and it will not be many years before the inquiry will be raised, whether an education for their business is not required for common school teachers, and whether schools for this specific purpose are not demanded. This suggests another proposition.

Third. In order to improve the schools of Connecticut, schools are needed for the education of teachers. Normal schools can he provided in Connecticut as easily as in other states. If it is not done by the state, it can be done by the benevolent. If the expense is not defrayed by the legislature, as in Massachusetts and New York, it can be defrayed by individuals, as in New Hampshire. In some way it will be done, when the public mind is aroused as it must be. Teachers themselves desire the advantages furnished by such seminaries. In addition to Normal schools, there is greatly needed an educational establishment in some central situation, well furnished with buildings and apparatus, and well enough endowed to furnish the best tuition at a low rate; an institution where the sons of the Connecticut farmers can receive a good education in all the higher branches, as well as in the elements of the classics, and in which the sciences which pertain to agriculture, should be thoroughly mastered. Such an in-

stitution would be a central light. It would furnish a noble basis for accomplished common school teachers. Let us hope that the time may not be far distant when we shall be able to speak of our Williston and of our seminary, like the one which is honored by his name.

Fourth. The teachers of our schools, to teach better must be paid better. Their business must be made more lucrative and permanent. It must be made an object for them to qualify themselves amply for their vocation, and to continue in it longer. This can be done only as teaching yields a respectable living. There are not more than ten teachers in the state who have a living now, while there are more than a hundred school districts, that with a judicious arrangement, and their present income, might sustain the same teacher from year to year. But the means of payment can be greatly increased. There is not a state in the Union in which teachers can be paid so well as in Connecticut, and in which the burden shall be so little felt. No state has so magnificent a school fund. Let there be raised in addition, less per scholar, than is cheerfully raised in the majority of agricultural towns in Massachusetts, and the best teachers in the country would flock into Connecticut, as many now rush from it. The people of these towns were not impoverished by raising this sum.—Nor would it impoverish the people of Connecticut. On the contrary, it would enrich them; for it can be proved that a liberal sum cheerfully raised for a course of years by any community for common education, will return to that community in money, with more than compound interest.

Fifith. The cities and large villages should at once make use of their peculiar facilities for elevating their public schools. Thus will they show, in actual results, what can be accomplished, and excite other towns with zeal not to be behind them. The plan which we propose is extremely simple, and has been tested so often and so long as to have passed the best of all tests—that of actual experiment.—The central and more compact portions of the city or village, should first be constituted a single school district. Let the younger scholars—those younger than from eight to ten—be distributed in primary school-houses, which should be located at convenient points in the district, so that the walk should in no case be fatiguing. They should be instructed in all cases by female teachers, in summer and winter, and from year to year. Female teachers are cheaper; female teachers are better for this immature age. Their influence is more gentle; it forms the girls to mild dispositions and graceful manners; it infuses a portion of its own sweetness into the harsh and self-willed perverseness of early boyhood. Female teachers are more patient than those of the other sex. They can teach, with better effect, music, drawing, and writing. Last and not least—experience has shown that primary schools, such as we speak of, can in their hands, be conducted with the most entire success. We would that all the parents could be introduced to some of these delightful schools, taught by one or more females, "in whose own hearts, Love, Hope, and Patience, had

first kept school." We have seen the pupils gather around the teacher each morning with eagerness and new delight. We have heard from their own lips, breaking out in unconscious expressions of love, the strong affection which she had inspired. We have heard the clear and shrill piping of their cheerful songs. We have measured the quiet moral influences that have been thus infused, and have gathered strength from day to day.

From these primary schools, after having passed through a prescribed course of study, and in general, after having attained a fixed age, the pupils should go to the central school. If the district is small, one school will suffice to be taught by a master through summer and winter. If it is large, it may be subdivided into more or fewer gradations—the lower to be taught by females. In almost all cases, the assistants of the masters may be females, and by the aid of two experienced and competent females, and with the convenience of recitation rooms, one master can control from one hundred to one hundred and fifty pupils. Higher than this, if the population will allow it, there may be another school, the High School, or two High Schools—one for each of the sexes. To these no pupil should be admitted, except on passing a close examination, and this school should teach the highest branches that can be contemplated in a system of universal education—the Mathematics, the Natural Sciences, and perhaps the elements of the Languages. All these schools should be under one system, and be free to all. This is no theory. There are at this moment in villages of New England, of from one thousand five hundred to four thousand inhabitants, public school-houses, more tasteful and convenient than any college building in Connecticut. In these school-houses an education is given so superior that no select school can live by their side. To these schools scholars crowd from the neighboring towns, and will perform menial services in families, in order to gain a residence in the village and admission to its public school. This is as it should be. This is republicanism. But how is it in Connecticut? Some of the cities have made a beginning, it is true, and with good to themselves and a healthful influence upon the communities around. But there are hundreds of communities, in which this plan might be introduced, which are opposed to it altogether. There are some in which it has been tried, and abandoned through opposition. We know a village in which two thousand dollars were to be raised, all the preliminaries having been adjusted, and this money was in the main to be voted for by the people, and to be paid by a single man, who was himself anxious to pay it, and yet the enterprise failed by the cry of "*a school for the rich!*" What is the state of many of these villages, both manufacturing and agricultural? Is it not true that select schools are sustained by the rich and the reputable, both for older and even for very young children?—that in consequence, the common schools have been abandoned more or less, generally, to the poor and the neglected, and have degenerated because the rich do not care for them? Is it not true that the degeneracy of the common schools in the

best and largest towns of Connecticut may be traced to the time when select schools were introduced as its beginning, and that this degeneracy has been going forward ever since? Is it not true, to confirm this matter by argument that cannot be broken, that the best common schools now existing are to be found in those towns and districts in which select schools are impossible, and all classes of the community are interested to make the public school the best school.

Is it not true moreover, that by this separation of intercourse, of sympathy, and of acquaintance, begun in infancy, matured in childhood, and hardened in youth into contempt and scorn, on the one side, and into jealousy and malice on the other; there has been commenced in Connecticut a permanent and anti-republican division of society, on the one side of which, social oppression shall gather strength, and in the other shall lurk the incendiary and the murderer?

Sixth. The doctrine should be understood and proclaimed in Connecticut, that the property of the whole community may rightfully be taxed, for the support of public education. It should be proclaimed, because it is the true doctrine. The pecuniary interests of a community like our own, to say nothing of those interests that are higher, are deeply concerned in the question whether all shall be educated. They are as vitally concerned too, that all shall be *well* educated. The property of the rich, whether they have children or not, may and should be taxed, because the security of that property demands that this insurance should be effected upon it. The tax which they pay is only the premium on this insurance. Besides, it is cheaper as well as more grateful, to pay a tax for the support of schools, than it is to pay the same for jails and poor-houses.

In Connecticut this right is denied and disputed. A tax may be levied on a district for the construction and repair of school-houses, but when a sum is to be raised additional to that which is received from the public funds, it is left to those who have children to send to the school. The consequences of this system are most mischievous. The summer school becomes a select school, instead of being a public school. Or perhaps to make it open to all, for a month or two, the allowance from the public treasury is eked out by the greatest possible extenuation. The cheapest teacher is hired, and the winter school is robbed of the means of subsistence, in order to furnish the thinnest possible allowance for its starving sister in the summer. When this "short allowance" is consumed, the children of the laboring poor, at once the most numerous and the most needy, are retained at home, because the parents can or will not pay the *capitation* tax. The children of the rich are sent to the select school of a higher order, the one of their own providing; while the children of the middling classes occupy the district school-house, with the select school No. 2. Hence, in the summer, troops of children go no where to school, except to the school of nature, which to them is the school of ignorance and vice, and the schools which are kept up in multitudes of cases, are the merest skeletons of schools, both in numbers and in character. This bad and unequal system is sustained from two

causes—the opposition of so many tax-payers to a system of property taxation—and what is more unaccountable, the opposition of those who are *tax-voters* but not *tax-payers*, who are set against such a system, because it tends to build up schools for the rich! More than one instance can be named, in which this doctrine has been industriously circulated by some cunning miser among his poorer neighbors, and they have gone to the school meeting to vote against all expense, not dreaming that their advisers were trembling in their shoes, for fear of a petty rate bill. And so they have voted against any change, and saved their neighbor all expense, literally, and brought down the tax upon their own heads.

This is unequal, anti-republican, and wrong; and it ought to be made odious. It should be held up in all its unfairness. The right of the town or school society to tax its property should be embraced by all parties. The party calling itself conservative should proclaim it, because it tends so certainly to the security of society. The party calling itself popular should hold it, because it sends one of the best of blessings to the door of every man.

To this should be added, the condition attached to the distribution of the State fund, that no school society should receive its lawful portion, except on the condition, that it should raise by taxation, a specified sum for every scholar. This would be a hard doctrine in Connecticut, it is true, and that is the very reason why it should be insisted on. It is true and most important, and should be boldly uttered. The other States, without an exception, that distribute from school funds, do it on such a condition. The entire public sentiment of the Union, is fixed and unchangeable on this point, and we grieve to say that we fear the neglect of Connecticut has been a warning against following her example. Shall it be that this munificent bequest of our fathers, given to promote the cause of public education, hall fail of its design through the neglect or perversion of their sons? or shall it serve this cause, most effectually, as Connecticut shall stand forth as a perpetual monument to warn against the like use of such funds? Shall it be that the State which they designed should be the model State to the Union, shall serve only as an example to admonish its sister States, rather than as one to excite and inspire them? Are we not bound as trustees of this fund, to secure the most complete fulfillment of their designs, and, as experience and a change of circumstances call for new safeguards, to provide these safeguards? May not the people make the raising of a specified sum on the property of the State, a condition against the improvident waste of this bounty?

The argument on this subject is very simple, and as it would seem, very convincing. In order to improve our Common Schools, more money must be provided. If it is raised, as it now is by a tax upon those who use the schools, then the schools are no longer common schools, but for a part of the year, they must be select schools. The one must embarrass the other. Those who will have better schools will leave the public schools altogether. Those who depend on the

common schools, cannot or will not elevate them. But introduce a property tax, and you make the schools the property and the pride of the whole people. You make it for the interest of the rich to use the money which they now expend for the support of higher establishments to raise and improve the public schools. Thus the blessings of this expenditure will be diffused. Its light and warmth will not be like that of the fire which cheers one apartment only, but like the heat of the blessed sun, which gives no less to the rich, for what it gives to the poor. To connect the raising of a small sum per scholar, as a condition of receiving the bounty of the State, is the simplest and surest way of elevating the schools of the whole State, together and alike.

These are the principles which must be received in Connecticut, and believed by its citizens generally, in order to secure a thorough improvement in its common schools. It might be shown, that some of the most important of them were suggested by citizens of Connecticut, long before the present movement for Common Schools commenced in the other States. They are of Connecticut origin. Let them be owned as her own and here put in practice, as they can be no where beside.

These principles may be propagated. Let the legislature be memorialized. But let not the legislature be relied upon as the only hope. It may not be expedient that the government should move at once. It may not be practicable, if it is expedient. Individuals can do much without the government. A State association can be formed. Measures can be taken to unite the friends of education throughout the State. Teachers' Institutes, and Normal Schools can be set on foot by individual and associated benevolence, as they have been in a portion of New Hampshire. Such a movement would not be very expensive. The agencies need not be costly, nor the expenditures great, but the work is precious, and worth much cost, if it were required.

Nor is the work discouraging. It is discouraging in its beginnings, but rapid in its advances. Every district animated with a right spirit, diffuses light and wakens interest in ten of its neighborhood. Every school-house, well constructed, with its convenient apartments, its successful teacher, and its happy scholars, gives an impulse which cannot be computed. Parents are animated with hope and desire. Children ask why their own school-house cannot be as good. Prejudice is softened. Scepticism is convinced, and public spirit is awakened.

The Connecticut people may be aroused. There are thousands and tens of thousands, who are ready to stand upon their feet and to put their shoulders to this work. They are not rash, nor headlong it is true—they are cautious and stable, but they are the more steadfast when thoroughly convinced. They are not profuse and extravagant in their expenditures—but they have money, and they are willing to give it for objects seen to be important. They are not carried away by vague declamation or transcendental moonshine—but they have

intellects to discern and hearts to feel, in respect to a concern so practical and good as that of public education. Let the work be commenced with vigor and with hope.

In carrying it forward, two classes of citizens can be especially useful. On them rests a great and peculiar responsibility. We name first, the acting politicians of all parties. They are now uncommitted as partisans for or against any system. They have an equal interest in the improvement of schools. It would be a slander which they would resent with indignation, to say that they do not feel an equal zeal for this most important interest, in which the prosperity and pride of the State are equally concerned. Eminent individuals of all political names are known to be zealous for common school reform. There are subjects enough beside this, out of which political capital can be made. Attempts to do this elsewhere, have been signally rebuked. Let parties divided by questions of national policy, vie with each other in their zeal and efficiency, in respect to this common interest, for which every man's hearth-stone cries out in his ears. Let it never be said that the citizens of Connecticut grind the bodies and souls of their children between the upper and nether millstone of political contests. Heathen barbarism, offered to "Moloch, horrid king," its children in sacrifice by sending them through devouring flames blazing fiercely on either side,

> "Though for the noise of drums and timbrels loud
> Their children's cries unheard, that pass'd through fire
> To his grim idol."

Let not this be enacted on a more fearful scale, in civilized and Christian Connecticut.

On the clergy of Connecticut there rests also a great and solemn responsibility. It is a religious duty to care for the untaught, the neglected, and the ignorant. It is a duty to give to such, the best intellectual and moral culture which we can. It is a duty which we owe to our nearest neighbor, a duty which is simple, pressing, and most easily discharged. So do we best aid and prepare them for influences appropriately and directly religious. Let this duty be preached, on the Sabbath and from the pulpit. Let it be preached till it is believed, and the hearers show their faith by their works. We raise money to provide schools for the destitute in our own land. We raise it also, to send to Ceylon, and Burmah, and China, that schools may be established, which may prepare the youthful mind for the influences and the truths of our holy religion. And yet there are towns in Connecticut in which there are scores of children, which for want of that moral and intellectual culture, that the public schools might give, are, as really, though not in the same degree, hopeless subjects of religious truth, as many children of Ceylon and Burmah. We have seen children of this character. Besides these, there are thousands for whom, a teacher could do far more than a clergyman, and on whom the church can act most directly and efficiently through the teache

We are well aware that efforts have been made to excite distrust of any system of public education, on religious grounds, and to arouse against it sectarian prejudice and conscientious convictions. There may have been occasion for these feelings in some states of the Union. Injudicious management, false principles, efforts to propo gate peculiar principles, insidious and open, may have been noticed The school system has therefore been held up as anti-religious. The doctrine has been proclaimed that each church must have its separate schools, in order to secure an education thoroughly Christian.

In Connecticut there need be no fear of embarrassment of this kind. The people of Connecticut, with scarcely an exception, are of one mind in the belief of the following truths. They believe in the moral duties as enforced by the words and life of Jesus. They believe with Washington, that public morality is best secured by religious faith and religious feeling. None of them will object to the use of simple but fervent prayers and hymns, to the inculcation of the duty of imitating Christ, and of trusting in him. In these points they can all unite, and they can turn them to use in their public schools. What the children need to be taught beside, can be supplied in the family, the Sabbath school, the pulpit.

Such is the position of things in Connecticut. We have seen her ancient glory; the present depression with its causes; the need of effort; the points to which this effort should be directed, and the grounds of discouragement and hope. Shall this good work be undertaken? Shall this field be entered? No state in the Union has means so abundant. No state can, if it will, have schools so splendid and so good. Its population is homogeneous, frugal, intelligent, moral, and religious. It has been accustomed to common schools for generations. It has a school system already established in the hearts and habits of all, which needs improvement only, and not a new beginning. The memory of the past calls us to effort. The necessity of the present will not let us alone. The voices of the venerable dead, speak to us in solemn tones from that dim and distant world to which they have gone, and command us not to be untrue to the precious trust which they garnered for us. The cries of the living come up to us, and in tones piteous as an infant's wailing, beseech us to spare their childhood from neglect, and their future manhood from ignorance and crime. The honor of the State and of the fathers of the State calls on its citizens. The sons of Connecticut who have gone out from the paternal mansion, burn with eager desire to be able to put to silence the reproaches which they are forced to hear, and to know that the spirit which provided the School Fund, still lives to make effectual that important trust Those who were personally active in devising and securing this fund, would tell us that no care of ours can surpass the thoughtfulness with which Treadwell studied its conception, and no labor of ours can compare with the daily and nightly toil with which Hillhouse and Beers secured its investments, and watched its securities. The question is, shall Connecticut then be true to herself? We have seen the trim and noble

ship, manned by a skillful crew, open the passage through an unknown and dangerous strait, and gallantly lead the way for a timid and creeping fleet, into a secure and long desired haven. We have seen her pass every shoal but the last, but just as she doubles its treacherous point, she grounds for an instant, and the cry is from the fleet, she will be stranded there! They make all haste to rush past her. In their cry of exultation they forget all her guidance in the past. Shall *she* then be stranded, who has guided so many vessels to so noble a port? Shall her last service be to lie on the quicksands, a decaying hulk, deserted and useless, except as a beacon to show the shoal on which she struck? Shall she be stranded? No, no! A thousand times, No! Let the cry then be, *Connecticut first to lead the way, and foremost forever!*

The principal measures, it will be seen, recommended by the Essay are:—1. A thorough examination of teachers and supervision of the schools by one or more county officers. 2. The holding of Teachers' Institutes without delay. 3. The establishment of one or more Normal Schools by the Legislature, or by individuals. 4. More liberal compensation to teachers. 5. Gradation of schools in cities and large villages, especially the establishment of a Public High School. 6. Property taxation for school purposes. To carry out these measures, the Legislature must be memorialized. A state convention of teachers and friends of education must be organized. Institutes must be held by individual enterprise and benevolence. The public press and lecture-room must be enlisted; and, above all, a beginning must be made somewhere by somebody.

Mr. Bunce, having put his hand to the plough, did not look back till he had driven the ploughshare deep into the public mind. In connection with a few other citizens of Hartford, he determined to realize some of the suggestions of improvement set forth in the Prize Essay. A Convention or Institute of Teachers of Hartford County was determined on; and, to perform the preliminary work of a state officer, he employed Rev. Merril Richardson, a gentleman admirably fitted for the purpose, to visit every town in the county, and awaken an interest in the purposed meeting. The convention was held in November, and two hundred and fifty-four teachers were in session for one week, under the instruction of experienced educators and lectures. This gave a powerful impulse to the public mind. A monthly School Journal, under the name of the Connecticut School Manual, was started, in January, 1847, under the editorial charge of Mr. Richardson. Other Institutes were held in the spring, at Tolland, Winsted, and Meriden.

But the zeal and liberality of Mr. Bunce did not end here. Aided

by others, he resolved to do all in his power to bring about the establishment, in Hartford, of a Public High School for the older scholars of the First School Society, and of a Normal School for the state. First in the order of trial, the plan of a Public High School, which we first proposed in 1839, was revived. No pains were spared to inform and interest the public in the enterprise. Public meetings were held, in which elaborate and animated debates were conducted by the most prominent speakers of the city. Individuals were seen and conversed with. The ignorant were informed; the indifferent aroused; the rich were made to see that property would be more secure in a well-educated community; and the poor, to feel that they could not have the advantage of good schools, without these schools were also cheap. The public press was enlisted, and pamphlets published and distributed, in which the whole subject was fully explained. Seldom has the public mind of Hartford been more deeply interested in any enterprise; and, finally, the plan was carried by an overwhelming vote of the largest town meeting ever held in Hartford. Much of the expense of all these prelimary movements was borne by Mr. Bunce; and to the completion of the building, he contributed $1,000 beyond the amount voted by the society. While this movement was going forward, Mr. Richardson, by his addresses and in the "*School Manual*," was laboring to prepare the way for the establishment of a Normal School, and to this enterprise Mr. Bunce offered to contribute $5,000.

To return to the doings of the Legislature in 1846. The Joint Standing Committee on Education, to whom the Message of the governor and the Report of the Superintendent was referred, submitted a report, in which, after speaking of the "beneficial effects" of the appointment of a state officer, "as an efficient and authorized head and leader," "to give life and energy to the system," and that "the call for improvement is becoming more loud and emphatic every year," they set forth the following, "plan for the improvement of common schools:—"

1. A *Board of Education*—to be established, to consist of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Superintendent of Common Schools, and three other members, one of whom to go out each year.

2. *School Societies to be abolished.* The *towns* to occupy the place of the societies in all respects.

3. Some encouragement toward the establishment of a *paper* devoted to the subject of education.

4. A *Normal School*—to be established for the instruction of teachers, of which the principal might be the Superintendent of Common Schools, thus making a saving to the state, and enabling it to secure the services of a man fully competent to discharge the duties of both offices.

5. Some encouragement to *Teachers' Institutes, or Association of Teachers* for mutual improvement.

6. Some encouragement towards procuring *libraries, maps, globes,* and *philosophical apparatus.*

7. Some regulation or encouragement in relation to improved school and outhouses.

8. To prevent a *multiplicity of books*—no school to have but *one kind* of spelling-book; one of geography, one of grammar, and two of arithmetic.

The "Plan" was continued to the next session of the General Assembly, after the adoption of the following Resolutions:—

Resolved, That this Legislature approve, in the main, of the plan proposed by the Committee on Education, and believing that when fully matured and carried out with a due regard alike to economy and to the interests of education, it will prove highly advantageous to the state.

Resolved, That two thousand copies of the plan be printed and circulated, together with the laws concerning common schools.

Governor Bissell in his Annual Message in 1847, commends the subject of education to the attention of the Legislature as follows:—

In a government resting on the virtue and intelligence of its citizens, where worth and talents are sure to be duly appreciated, and where the avenues to distinction are open to all alike; the cause of education should ever be regarded as an object of paramount importance. It is, and ever has been so regarded by the people of this state. And early, in the very infancy of our existence as a state, were laid, deep and broad, those foundations of morality, intelligence, and religion, upon which has been reared the structure of our prosperity. And although there are many things in which we may not compare favorably with many of our sister states, yet there are others in which we may indulge an honest state pride; in the structures which have been reared and the provision which has been made for the comfort and relief and instruction of those unfortunate classes of our fellow-men, to which I have just alluded; in our Religious Institutions, our Seminaries of Learning, and our Common Schools; in our School Fund, that proud monument of the wisdom and foresight of those who have gone before us, now disbursing through the state, annually, the sum of $125,000, and spreading the light of intelligence over thousands of youthful minds.

I need not say that we shall be wanting in duty to ourselves, wanting in our duties to the state and its highest interests, if we neglect to guard and protect and cherish these favored institutions; or if we are either cold or indifferent to the early training of those who are to be the future men of the state, and upon whom are soon to devolve its government and its destinies.

Your attention will be particularly called to the School Fund, and its influence upon the cause of education. You will inquire whether it has accomplished all which it ought to have accomplished; whether it has elevated the standard of instruction in our common schools as it should have been elevated; whether it has made these schools what they ought to have been made; and whether that supervision has been exercised over them which should have been exercised. If these inquiries should lead you to the conclusion that there are defects in the present system, which require to be remedied, you will, doubtless, apply the remedy.

In our sister States of New York and Massachusetts, Normal Schools, or Seminaries for the express purpose of training teachers, have been established, and it is believed, with the most beneficial results. I fear we are far behind these states in our efforts to disseminate information on the subject, and to give an impulse to the cause of education in our common schools. Believing, as I do, that the prosperity of these schools is identified with the honor and prosperity of the state, I shall, most cordially, coöperate in any measures calculated to advance their interests.

Mr. Beers, in his "*Second Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools, for* 1847," a document of 119 pages, appended the views of the School Visitors from 200 school societies, on the condition of the schools, and on the plan of the Joint Standing Com-

mittee on Education of the Legislature of 1846, for their improvement. On these views and plan, the Superintendent submits the following (among other) remarks:—

CONDITION OF THE SCHOOLS.

These statements, respecting the wide-spread apathy of the public generally, as to the welfare of the schools; the dilapidated and unhealthy condition of many school-houses: the irregular and non-attendance of children at school; the multiplicity of text-books; the want of well-trained teachers and of parental interest and visitation, are made by men practically and officially connected with the schools, all of them as visitors and examiners, most of them as scholars, and many of them as teachers in former years. The concurrent testimony of so many witnesses—every way competent, from every section of the state, and from towns embracing every variety of district as to size and population, with the fullest personal knowledge of the facts, and without the possibility of any concerted plan or any plausible motive to mislead, as to the existence of certain defects in the practical operation of our school system—should arrest the attention of the Legislature, and lead to some well-considered and efficient remedies.

PLANS FOR IMPROVEMENT.

Various plans and suggestions, for giving increased efficiency to our system of common schools, have been at different times urged upon the attention of the General Assembly; but none has been more considerately brought forward than that submitted by the Joint Standing Committee of Education at the last session. The features of that "Plan" were drawn up after comparing the views of school visitors from different sections of the state, contained in the last annual report from this department. The plan was approved in the main by a concurrent vote of the Senate and House of Representatives, and continued to the next session, after making provision for bringing it to the attention of the people, in connection with the laws concerning common schools. The plan thus originated, approved, and made known, has received the special attention of the school visitors, whose views on the several features are herewith appended.

The first features of the proposed plan contemplates a "*Board of Education*," to consist of the Governor, Lieut. Governor, Superintendent of Common Schools, and three other persons, one of whom to go out each year. To this board it is presumed that the general supervision of the common schools is to be committed. Without expressing any opinion as to the proper constitution or powers of this board, the Superintendent is convinced that some additional provision should be made for acquiring and disseminating information as to the actual condition of the schools from year to year, and for maturing well-considered plans of improvement. Connecticut is now the only state in New England where the common school system originated and has been most fostered, in which there is no separate department or officer set apart for these purposes.

2. The second feature of the plan of the committee contemplates *the abandonment of our present school society organization, and giving the support and supervision of the schools to the towns*, where it mainly rested previous to 1795. The converting of ecclesiastical societies having territorial limits, sometimes coextensive with the limits of the town whose name they bear, but more frequently embracing only portions of a town, and sometimes parts of two or more towns into school societies, had its origin probably in the convenience of the people, and it is supposed by some, partly because the supervision of the schools was thought to belong to the parochial duties of the resident clergy. The more complete organization of school districts, by which the legal voters of a district have now almost the entire management of the school, is claimed to do away with the necessity of school societies, and that the only duty appertaining to school societies, except what relates to the appointment of school visitors, consists in taking care of the burying grounds, the connection between which and our common schools does not appear very obvious. It is also claimed that, by doing away with school societies, (except for the management of local funds,) a large number of officers would be dispensed with, and the duties of examining teachers, visiting

schools, and recommending books, could be performed by a smaller committee having jurisdiction over a larger number of schools. It is also thought, by some, that the proposed restoration of the old town organization of Connecticut, and of New England generally, will break up that apathy which now hangs over the public, and which it is claimed has grown up in part from the separation of the school interest from the other great interests of the community. There is no concealing the fact, that in too many school societies the annual meeting, (which is the only meeting held in the course of the year,) is never attended by more than half a dozen members.

3. The committee recommend that some encouragement be given to a *Periodical devoted to the cause of education.* There can be no doubt that a paper of this kind, judiciously conducted and sent to the officers of each school district and society, would be of great service to this department, and to the uniform and efficient administration of the school law. Through this channel all circulars calling for information, all opinions respecting the construction of any part of the law, all decisions involving a forfeiture of school money, and the annual reports of this department, could be published at a less expense than is now necessarily incurred. But, independent of the convenience and economy of this arrangement, the dissemination of useful information on the construction of school-houses, on methods of classification, instruction, and discipline, on the best way of enlisting the coöperation of parents, on the progress of education in different districts and towns in this state, as well as in other states and countries, would be of incalculable service to committees, teachers, and the community generally.

4. The most important improvement recommended by the Committee is the establishment of a *Normal School, or Seminary for the instruction of teachers,* or the training of the young men and young women of the state, who have the requisite qualifications of talent, tact, and character, to a practical knowledge of the best methods of school instruction and government. This subject has long been before the people of this state. The first distinct presentation of its claims, and one of the ablest ever made, was given by the Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, of Hartford, in a series of articles in the "*Connecticut Observer,*" commenced in January, 1825, and afterwards published in a pamphlet. This pamphlet has been republished, entire, or in copious extracts, in most of the educational periodicals of the country, and has undoubtedly aided in preparing the public mind for the action which has already followed in several states, and which is likely to take place still more generally. From the communications received from school visitors on this point, both for this and the last year, it will be seen that the friends of school improvement, from every section of the state, are calling for some legislative action on the subject.

Surely Connecticut, which was the first seriously to agitate the subject, ought not to be the last to avail herself of the wise suggestions of her own citizens, and the experience of two such states as New York and Massachusetts. If the Legislature would pledge the means to sustain the annual expense of one such school, on an economical scale, for a period long enough to give the institution a fair trial, it is believed that there are towns in which it should be located, or individuals, ready to provide the necessary buildings, funiture and apparatus.

5. The Committee also recommend that "some encouragement should be given to *Teachers' Institutes or Conventions.*" We are not without experience of the benefits of these gatherings of teachers for mutual improvement. The first assemblage of the kind, for any thing like a systematic course of review and instruction in the studies pursued in common schools, was held in Hartford, in 1839; and one of the largest and most spirited conventions which has come to the knowledge of the Superintendent was that which met in the same city last fall. The conventions which have been held in Litchfield, Winsted, and Tolland during the past year, were numerously attended and called forth the most enthusiastic spirit of improvement.

6. The Committee recommend that "some encouragement be given by the state towards *procuring libraries, maps, globes and philosophical apparatus* for our schools." There can be no doubt that our schools and the community would be benefited by an expenditure which should bring libraries of good books within reach of the old and the young of every district; and that teachers could teach more thoroughly, if they were furnished with the means of illustrating to the eye,

and of enabling the pupils to work out with their own hands, every principle or fact of science capable of being thus illustrated and worked out.

A small appropriation on the part of the state to each district or society, or even town, which would raise the same or a larger sum, both sums to be expended in a library, would in a few years furnish every neighborhood with a course of reading in every department of useful knowledge, and thus carry forward the work of education beyond the school-room, into the family, the workshop, and field, wherever the thoughtful man or child was at work.

7. *School-houses.* That some regulation more thorough than now exists in the School Law should be adopted to secure convenient, healthy, and attractive school-houses in many districts, is clearly shown in the returns of the school visitors, and attested to by the personal recollections of almost every person who has received any portion of his education in a district school. Common decency—a proper respect to the health, manners, and morals of the young especially—calls loudly for better provision on the part of the district, and more attention on the part of teachers, to the out-buildings connected with the school-houses. A law, making it conditional to the enjoyment of the public money by any district, that the school should be kept in a school-house approved by the school visitors, would doubtless arrest the attention of many delinquent districts.

8. The Committee close with the recommendation of further legislative action to "*prevent the multiplicity of books*,—no school to have but one kind of spelling-book, one of geography, one of grammar, and two of arithmetic." The Superintendent is not satisfied that it is desirable or practicable to have a perfect uniformity of text-books through all the schools of the state. At the same time, there is no subject on which school visitors urge a reform more strenuously, or call more unitedly and strongly on the Legislature for the appointment of a state committee or board, to recommend or prescribe books for the use of the schools. If a Board of Education should be authorized to recommend a list of suitable books, naming two or three most approved in each study, and then it could be made the duty of a convention of delegates from the school visitors of each society in a county, to select and prescribe from this list the books to be used in the schools of that county, a desirable uniformity would soon be secured. Especially would this be the case, if school visitors were authorized, as are the school committee of every town in Massachusetts, to procure a suitable supply of text-books for all the schools, to deposit the same in some central place, and furnish them to schools at such prices as will merely reimburse the society the original cost of the books and charges for transportation, deposit, and commission for sales. Some arrangement might be made by the county convention to have a supply of the books prescribed for use in the schools, kept by one or more dealers, at some central point.

The Message of the Governor, and Report of the Superintendent, together with sundry petitions for the establishment and liberal endowment of a Normal School, were referred to the Joint Standing Committee on Education, consisting of Hon. E. Williams, of the Senate and Messrs. Russell, of New Haven, Rowe, Lay, Carter, Lincoln, Calhoun, Shailer, and Nash. This Committee submitted a Report, in which they deprecate any hasty action on the part of the Legislature;—believing that "the great requisite for successful action on this subject was caution,"—and at the same time acknowledging that "everybody knows that our schools are in a bad condition"—"and not only is little taught in our schools, but that little is so taught as to make the child wish to learn no more." The Committee express an opinion favorable to Normal Schools and Teachers' Conventions or Institutes.

For the establishment of schools where teaching as an art shall be taught, the

returns were more favorable than for some other of the proposed measures. From these replies your Committee have been led to suppose, that the time has come for the state to do something for the establishment of such seminaries. They do not believe that any such outlay can be made as they trust the people will by and by call for, and they believe that the same cautious course should still be followed. It is better even that the people should feel that this General Assembly has done too little, than that any considerable part of them should think we have done too much.

The relief from the former is always at hand, while any measure which should again awaken the economical prejudices of our people, would throw the whole matter back for years. Between these two extremes, with the necessity of present action on the one side, and of great caution on the other, they have endeavored to pursue the course dictated by sound policy; a course which gives immediately, before the commencement of the fall schools, all the benefits of normal instruction to the entire body of common school teachers, at a far less expense than would be required by the permanent establishment of fixed schools for teachers. In connection with this temporary plan, your Committee recommend measures to be taken for the establishing of normal schools of a permanent character.

The recommendations of the Committee were approved by the Legislature in the following form:—

Resolved, That the Superintendent of Common Schools be, and hereby is, directed to employ four or more suitable persons to hold, at two or more convenient places in each county, between the 15th day of September and the 31st day of October, 1847, two or more schools of teachers, for the purpose of instruction in the best modes of governing and teaching our common schools; and that the compensation of the persons so employed shall not exceed three dollars per day, in full for services and expenses, for the time occupied in teaching and traveling to and from the several places where the schools may be held, which compensation shall be paid from the civil list funds of the state; and the account of said teachers for services shall be taxed and audited by the Superintendent of Common Schools, and presented to the Controller, who shall draw an order for the same on the Treasurer of the state.

Resolved, That a Committee of one from a county be appointed by his Excellency the Governor to make due examination, and report to the next Legislature a definite plan for the support, location, and internal arrangement of one or more schools for teachers, *provided*, the expenses shall not exceed the sum of two hundred dollars.

Resolved, That those, and those only, shall be entitled to instruction in said schools for teachers, who shall declare their intention to teach in some public school of the state the ensuing year.

Governor Bissell in 1848, again refers to the subject in his Annual Message:—

At the last session of the General Assembly, a resolution was passed empowering the Executive to appoint a committee of one from each county to make due examination, and to report to this Legislature a definite plan for the support, location, and internal arrangement of one or more Normal Schools, for the training and instruction of teachers. A committee was appointed in conformity to the resolution, and the result of their investigations will be submitted to your consideration.

Under the same resolution the Superintendent of Common Schools was directed to employ four or more suitable persons to hold, at convenient places in each county, two or more sc ools of teachers, for the purpose of instruction in the best modes of teaching and governing our common schools.

In pursuance of the resolution, these conventions or schools have been held in all the counties of the state; and I am happy in being able to inform you that they have been attended by the most gratifying results; such as to raise well-grounded expectations of valuable and lasting improvement in the system of common school education.

The report of the Superintendent will be laid before you, from which it will

appear that more than one thousand four hundred persons attended these conventions; most of whom have since been engaged as teachers in the common schools of the state. I concur with him, in urging the claims of these institutions on the continued support and patronage of the Legislature. I also entirely concur in the suggestions he has made, in reference to our common schools.

Permit me to say that, whether this subject is to be regarded by you as legislators or as patriots, it is one every way worthy of your highest attention. The cause of popular education is indeed fundamental to every interest of the country; and the sentiment that, "in proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened," is now no less true than when it fell from the lips of the father of his country.

This cause early commended itself to the fathers of New England, and was by them deeply cherished. They introduced the system of free schools, and "opened the fountains of knowledge to all." And in every village, and every hamlet, the school-house was erected simultaneously with the dwelling and the house of worship. The *benefits* of this system we are now enjoying, and the evidences of its *wisdom* are every where around us. They are to be found in the general intelligence, and correct moral principles of our population. In a cheerful obedience to the laws; in that spirit of enterprise which has almost brought together the extremities of this mighty empire, and which transmits intelligence with the speed of light. And there is not a spot in the Union, where the sons of New England have fixed their abode, where they have not carried along with them, and impressed upon society the influence of these early institutions.

It is for us to determine whether they shall be sustained and improved, and made to answer the purposes of their original creation. It is a solemn trust committed to our care; and its obligations can in no way be discharged, but by elevating the standard of popular education, and giving character and efficiency to our common schools. And why should not this be done? Representing, as we do, an enlightened constituency, capable of appreciating the importance of the measure; in the enjoyment of a fund annually disbursing over the state more than $125,000 for the purposes of popular education, will it not be reproachful to us, if our primary schools, the only sources of instruction to the great body of the people, shall be suffered to languish and decline, or even to remain stationary? Other things may be neglected, and the mischiefs of such neglect be only slight and temporary, or they may be speedily repaired. Such is not the case here. The consequences of neglect are deep and abiding, and extend their unhappy influence to succeeding generations. There is no reason why an education may not be acquired in our common schools which shall qualify a young man to enter upon any of the walks of life, and to discharge its appropriate duties, whether professional or otherwise, with reputation to himself and benefit to the community.

I submit this matter to the consideration of the General Assembly, with the assurance that I will most cheerfully coöperate with you in any measures promotive of the object in view, which you, in your wisdom, may deem expedient.

The "*Third Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools, for May Session*, 1848, in addition to the suggestion of that officer, contains Reports of the persons appointed to conduct the Teachers' Conventions, and Extracts from the Reports of the Acting School Visitors on the condition of the Common Schools, classified under the following heads; 1. General condition of the Common Schools. 2. School-houses. 3. Attendance. 4. Society of Common School. 5. Books. 6. Teachers. 7. Apathy, or Parental and Public Neglect. The whole makes a pamphlet of 153 pages. The following extracts embrace the principal views and suggestions of the Superintendent.

TEACHERS' CONVENTIONS OR INSTITUTES.

These Conventions or Schools for Teachers constitute the most important events

in the history of our common schools for the last ten years. More than three-fourths of all the persons employed to teach the public schools last winter, it is supposed, were assembled together for four or five days,—during which time instruction was given by skillful and experienced teachers in the theory and practice of school-keeping, and the most approved methods of teaching in the various branches usually pursued in district schools. The regular exercises during the day were interspersed with discussions, in which the members of the Convention took part; and the evenings were devoted to lectures and discussions upon subjects connected with schools and education—in which parents and others were deeply interested, and in which prominent citizens took part. The good accomplished thus incidentally in the several places where the Conventions were held, by awakening parental and public interest, and disseminating sound views on important topics of school government and instruction, and on the duties of parents to teachers and to the schools where their children attend, was worth all that the conventions cost the state. But the direct and anticipated results of the conventions,—the bringing teachers from different towns in the same county into an acquaintance with each other, and to a knowledge of each other's experience and methods,—the presentation and exemplification by experienced and successful teachers of the means and methods by which they have attained success,—the breaking up in the minds of young and inexperienced teachers of radically wrong notions before they had been carried out into extensive practice, and thus distorted and dwarfed the mind of hundreds of the youth of the state,—the impulse and spirit of self and professional improvement, the desire to read, converse, and observe on the subject of school education and teaching, and to elevate the profession to which they belong,—these results, which were predicted, have been realized as fully as the best friends of the measure promised.

In view of the acknowledged success of these institutes or temporary Schools for Teachers, in this and other states, the Superintendent would respectfully urge upon the Legislature the wisdom of making provision for their continued support and systematic management. He is satisfied that in no other way can so much be done for the immediate improvement of the common schools, and in a manner so acceptable to the people. However wise and useful, ultimately, may be the engrafting of a regularly constituted Normal School upon our school system, in the opinion of the undersigned, the holding of these Institutes in the several counties, in the spring and autumn, and in different towns, until every town shall thus have had the benefit of prolonged education meetings, will accomplish a much larger amount of good in a shorter period of time.

SCHOOL-HOUSES.

The Reports of School Visitors, from every part of the state, speaks in strong terms of condemnation of the deplorable condition of many district school-houses.

The Superintendent respectfully commends to the consideration of the Legislature the importance of providing for the dissemination, among school officers and districts, of a document setting forth the evils of school-houses as they now are in too many instances, and containing a variety of plans for village and agricultural districts, and especially for those which are small and poor.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

There is a large waste of public money, and a still larger waste of school privileges in the state, in consequence of the non-attendance at school, of many children of a proper school age, and of the irregular attendance of many pupils who are registered as belonging to the public schools.

The opinion is now very general with officers intrusted with the administration of the school system of other states, that the apportionment of school money among the several districts should be based on the actual attendance at school of children belonging to the district, for a certain number of months in the year. This rule would, undoubtedly, call the attention of parents and districts to the pecuniary loss they would sustain from the irregular attendance of their children.

TOWN OR SOCIETY HIGH SCHOOL.

The power to establish such a school has always existed in the School Law, and in the early stages of our history it was made imperative on a certain class of towns to maintain a school of a grade similar to what is now known by the name of a High School. There can be no doubt that a school of this grade would release the district school of the great number of classes which now distract the attention and fritter away the time of the teacher,—would enable the teacher of the district school to teach the elementary studies more thoroughly,—would bring the means of a thorough practical education within the reach of many promising, but poor children, who would not otherwise enjoy them,—and would exert a powerful stimulus on both the pupils and teachers of all the district schools of the the same society.

BOOKS.

The Superintendent would respectfully make the following suggestions for the consideration of the Legislature:

1. Let this or some other department, acting with the advice and recommendation of the School Visitors (to be ascertained by answer to a printed circular addressed to every society in the state) or a Board or Committee appointed by the Legislature, recommend a list of books for the use of the common schools of different grades, naming two or three of those most approved in each study, and printing them in a list, in the order in which they are approved.

2. Let the School Visitors of every school society be authorized to select from this list the books which shall be used in the schools under their supervision, and when the books are thus selected, let the law forbid any change in such society by the School Visitors for a specified number of (three or five) years. To produce uniformity in the schools of adjacent societies, the School Visitors of any county might be authorized to meet in convention, by delegates from each society, to agree on a list of books for the county.

3. The School Visitors of every society might be authorized to procure a suitable supply of the text-books prescribed, and furnish them to the schools at such prices as will merely reimburse the society the original cost of the books and charges for transportation, deposit and commission for sales.

There can be no doubt of the willingness of the publishers of such books as are prescribed or recommended, to make arrangements to have a supply at some convenient place in each town, or county at least, provided they can be assured that their books will be used for a term of years.

PUBLIC APATHY.

Whatever may be the cause, there can be no doubt as to the fact, of a deep and wide-spread apathy on the part of parents and the public generally, as to the condition and improvement of the district school. On the part of the educated and wealthy, the apathy is manifested by sending their children to expensive private schools of no higher grade than the district school could reach, by proper efforts on the part of the district. On the part of another, and much larger class, apathy is manifested by staying from school meetings when school officers are to be appointed,—by an unwillingness to assume the labors and responsibilities of these offices,—by an indisposition to be taxed to put the school-houses in suitable repair, and furnish the same with necessary furniture and apparatus. And on the part of parents generally, there is a most culpable neglect to visit the school and encourage and sustain the teacher in his most arduous and exhausting labors. If a farmer was thus to neglect his young cattle, he would be stigmatized as hard hearted and improvident. But the prudent farmer who looks after his flocks and his herds through the pleasant and the inclement season, will fail to go into the school-house, winter after winter, where his children may be suffering discomfort from impure air, from high and backless seats, from a rush of cold air on their necks or feet, from the light falling directly on their books, or, it may be, from the bad instruction and worse temper and example of an incompetent teacher.

The Superintendent does not mean to infer from these and other manifestations

of parental indifference and neglect, that the parents and guardians of children in Connecticut care less for schools and the suitable education of children than in former years, or in other states; but simply from a variety of causes they seem to have got the impression, that a school system placed on the Statute Book, a School Fund established, and school officers annually appointed to administer the one and expend the other, will make good schools and educate their children. A more fatal mistake can not be made. The education of children is the first duty of parents, and no system, however wisely organized or thoroughly administered, no school fund, however large or economically expended, can supply the place of parental interest and sympathy. Parents must look after the system, the funds, the officers, the teachers, and the children. They must visit the schools, and let their interest in the children and the teachers be manifested in the school meeting, the school-room, and at their own table and fire-sides. Until this is done we shall never see the children of the state properly educated, and the school system properly administered.

STATE SUPERINTENDENT.

The experience of three years has convinced the undersigned that the duties of this office—inferior to no other in the state, in the importance and amount of labor devolved upon it—can not be satisfactorily performed by an officer who is charged with the business of the School Fund. The regular duties of the Commissioner of the Fund, if properly performed, will occupy the whole time of the most industrious man. The Superintendent can not, therefore, conclude this report without expressing his carefully formed opinion, that the best interest of the common schools of the state will be greatly promoted by the appointment of a suitable person to the office of Superintendent, who shall devote more time to its duties; or by the transfer of these duties to some other department or officer of the government.

The Committee appointed in accordance with a resolution of the Legislature of 1847, reported a plan for the support, location, and internal arrangement of a Normal School, which was embodied in a bill by the Joint Standing Committee on Education, that passed the House of Representatives by a large majority, and was lost in the Senate by one vote. The Committee, in their report, remark: "That, in the course of their examination, whatever doubts any of them had previously entertained, with regard to the utility of such schools, and the expediency of establishing them, these doubts have been entirely removed; such schools are no longer to be regarded as a doubtful experiment."

The action of the Legislature was confined to authorizing the Superintendent to employ, annually, suitable persons to hold at least two conventions or institutes in each county, and to procure and transmit to the clerk of each society a publication on school architecture.

The attention of the Legislature was called to the establishment of Professorships of Agriculture and the Arts, by a memorial of the President and Fellows of Yale College. The Committee on Education reported favorably on the subject; but the resolution was indefinitely postponed by a vote, by yeas and nays, of 165 to 30.

During the discussion of the report of the Committee, unfavorable to the immediate action of the Legislature in the establishment of a

Normal School, an assurance was made, on the floor of the House, by one of the Representatives of Hartford, that the sum of $10,000 would be placed at the disposal of the state, for the establishment of a Normal School, on condition that the same amount should be appropriated by the state. Towards this sum, James M. Bunce subscribed $6,000.

During the year, Mr. Richardson continued to publish the "*Connecticut School Manual*," and to lecture on the subject of school improvement in different parts of the state, and, with the assistance of other gentlemen, conducted teachers conventions, or schools for teachers. In pursuance of a resolution of the General Assembly the Superintendent procured and distributed to the clerk of each school society a copy of Barnard's "*School Architecture.*"

Governor Trumbull in 1849, in his Message to the Legislature, devotes the following remarks to the subject of education:—

It is hardly necessary for me to say, that too much attention can not be bestowed upon the education of our youth. Our fathers have always considered the cause of religion and education as inseparable. With them, the prosperity of our schools, academies, and colleges, has invariably been an object of anxious solicitude:—and in our Halls of Legislation, the education of the young has, at all times, been deemed a paramount duty.

While we are in the full enjoyment of their labors, let us be careful to emulate their laudable example, so as not only to perpetuate, but materially to improve these most valuable institutions of learning—institutions upon which not only our individual respectability and happiness, but our reputation as a state, essentially depend.

Gentlemen,—I have only to assure you of my cordial coöperation, in any measures tending to advance the cause of science, of virtue, and of enlightened civilization.

The "*Fourth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools for* 1849," with the accompanying documents, makes a pamphlet of 144 pages. After noticing some indications of improvement during the past year, the Superintendent adds:—

But there is room, even in districts and societies from which the most favorable returns are received, for still greater improvement. From school visitors, from teachers, from the gentlemen appointed to conduct the Teachers' Institutes, and from strangers who visit our schools, after visiting the schools of other states, the testimony is uniform and decided, as to the existence of many and serious defects in the practical working of our school system, and especially of a deep and widespread apathy on the part of the community generally, as to the condition and improvement of the district schools. The Superintendent can suggest but two modes in which this apathy can be effectually broken up, and a new order of things introduced into all our school arrangements.

1. The office of Superintendent, whose duties the undersigned has endeavored to discharge as faithfully as his other and primary duties to the school fund will allow, can be transferred to some other officer or person of suitable qualifications, who can devote a considerable portion, or the whole of his time, to the supervision of this great interest,—to visiting the schools, delivering lectures in different parts of the state, conferring with school visitors, as to plans of local improvement, organizing and animating by his presence and addresses, the Teachers' Institutes,—making himself acquainted with all that is doing in other states, in the great field of popular education, and communicating from year to year to the

Legislature and the people, the results of his experience, observation, and reflection, as to the condition of the schools, and best plans for their improvement.

2. One Normal School, or Teachers' Seminary, organized and conducted in reference to the peculiar circumstances of our own state, in connection with the temporary schools for teachers, which are already provided for, can be established. This will introduce an element of progress into every district, in which the teachers who may enjoy the advantages of this special training for their duties, may be employed, and thus address to the people the best of all arguments in favor of school improvement. In place of any new argument in favor of this measure, the Superintendent will content himself by referring to the manner in which it has been urged, from time to time, upon the attention of the people and Legislature of this state.

After quoting from various official and legislative reports and recommendations, the Superintendent remarks:—

Such is a brief history of the manner in which the special training of teachers for their work has been brought before the Legislature and the people of the state. To this it may be added, that many essays on the subject have been published in the public prints and in pamphlet form, and that, in the course of the last six years, it has been distinctly presented in the written reports of the school visitors of more than half of the school societies of the state. It would be an insult to the common intelligence of the people of the state, to suppose that the subject was not understood. And, as no considerable opposition has been manifested, it may fairly be presumed that they are prepared for some action on the subject.

The recommendations of the Superintendent were favorably acted on by the Legislature, by appropriating the sum of ten thousand dollars, paid by the State Bank of Hartford, and of one thousand dollars, paid by the Deep River Bank, as a bonus for their respective charters, for the support of "one Normal School, or Seminary for the Training of Teachers, in the art of instructing and governing the Common Schools of the state," for a period of four years, under the charge of a Board of eight Trustees; and by making the Principal of the Normal School, *ex-officio* Superintendent of Common Schools.

The Board originally appointed, consisted of Francis Gillette, of Bloomfield, for Hartford County; Oswin A. Doolittle, of North Haven, for New Haven County; Francis Bacon, of Litchfield, for Litchfield County; Asa Fish, of Stonington, for New London County; Eli T. Hoyt, of Danbury, for Fairfield County; Ezra S. Williams, of Saybrook, for Middlesex County; Loren P. Waldo, of Tolland, for Tolland County; and John D. Baldwin, of Thompson, for Windham County. The Board organized on the 7th of August, 1851, and invited, by public notice, proposals for the location of the school, and at an adjourned meeting on the 6th of September following, appointed Henry Barnard, of Hartford, Principal of the School, who became, in virtue of that appointment, Superintendent of Common Schools. Mr. Barnard accepted the appointment "on condition that an Associate Principal should be appointed to take the immediate charge and instruction of the Seminary, while he gave such attention to the in-

stitution as should be found compatible with the general supervision of the common schools of the state,—for which his studies and previous experience might in some measure have qualified him."

The following is the "*Act*" under which the duties of school supervision was transferred from "the Commissioner of the School Fund" to the Principal of the State Normal School.

"*An Act in Alteration of 'An Act concerning Education.'*"

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in General Assembly convened*, The Principal of the State Normal School, shall be, *ex-officio*, Superintendent of Common Schools, whose duty it shall be to exercise a general supervision over the common schools of the state, to collect information from school visitors, in the manner provided in the twenty-fifth section of the Act concerning Education, and from other sources, to prepare and submit an annual report to the General Assembly, containing a statement of the condition of the common schools of the state, plans and suggestions for the improvement and better organization of the common school system, and all such matters relating to his office and to the interests of education as he shall deem expedient to communicate.

2. That the Superintendent appointed by virtue hereof be, and he is hereby authorized and directed to hold at one convenient place in each county of the state in the months of September, October, or November, annually, schools, or conventions of teachers, for the purpose of instructing in the best modes of governing and teaching our common schools, and to employ one suitable person to assist him at each of said schools.

3. That the compensation of the Superintendent shall be three dollars per day, in full for his services while actually employed in performing the duties required of him by law, and shall be allowed his necessary disbursements for traveling expenses, stationery, printing and clerk-hire, in the business of said office. And the person or persons by him employed in assisting at said school shall be allowed not exceeding three dollars per day for the time occupied in traveling to and from, and attending said school conventions; which compensation and disbursements shall be paid from the civil list funds of the state, after being taxed and allowed by the Comptroller, who shall draw an order on the State Treasurer therefor.

4. The Superintendent of Common Schools be, and he is hereby directed to give seasonable notice to each school society, of the times and places of holding said schools or conventions, and such other notice to the teachers as he may deem expedient.

5. That so much of the tenth section of the Act concerning Education as constitutes the Commissioner of the School Fund, *ex-officio*, Superintendent of Common Schools, and the resolve, passed in 1848, providing for employing persons to hold schools of teachers, and for holding the same, be, and the same are hereby repealed. *Provided*, that the Commissioner of the School Fund shall, *ex-officio*, remain Superintendent of Common Schools, exercising all the powers heretofore conferred on him, until the Principal of the State Normal school shall be appointed, and enter on the duties of said appointment.

APPROVED, *June 22d*, 1849.

The Rev. T. D. P. Stone, then superintendent of the department of instruction in the State Reform School at Westboro', Massachusetts, and an experienced teacher in every grade of common schools, was appointed Associate Principal, and entered on the duties of his office on the 15th of May, 1850. The history of the State Normal School, both of the efforts to secure its establishment, and of its progress from year to year, down to 1863, will be given in a separate chapter.

VII. THE TEACHER'S MOTIVES.

BY HORACE MANN, LL.D.,

Late Secretary of the Mass. Board of Education, and President of Antioch College, Ohio.

ALL labor is delightful or irksome; noble or ignoble; and right or wrong in the sight of God, according to the quality of the motive that prompts its performance. That the moral quality of an action is always determined by the nature of the motive that begets it is a truism. But this is not the whole of the truth which is contained in that truism; the perseverance, the sustaining and uplifting energy with which we prosecute a purpose: the joy or loathing that wings or bemires our steps, in whatever we undertake, depend upon the motive that inspires us. Motive may hallow the most servile or desecrate the most sacred employment; may elevate into piety the menial office of washing a Savior's feet, or profane into perfidy and murder the privilege of saluting the Savior with a kiss.

Every body knows that the scale of motive is infinite in extent. It reaches upward to God, who is at the moral zenith; and it sinks to the moral nadir of all that is anti-god-like. Some motives are born of nature, and are what are called spontaneous. Some are the offspring of a cultivated intellect, and others of a moral and religious education. In cases of high necessity, nature prepares special motives to meet special exigencies. In the brute creation, the love of the young lies dormant, until awakened by the birth of their own offspring, but as soon as that event occurs, there is sure to flame up the blind, resistless orgasm of maternal love. I have seen a barn-yard fowl fly defiantly at a railroad locomotive with its attendant train, for daring to invade her walks when she clucked forth her chickens. I have had the most timid and wild of all our wild-fowl,—the partridge, fly in my face when accidentally obtruding upon her brood, in a woodland ramble. There is something which seems far more heroic and poetic, in the scream and swoop of the eagle, when her nest is invaded, than in her loftiest sunward flights; and the lioness bears about in her breast a latent magazine of rage, which nature stored there for the protection of her whelps. A mother is transfigured, when her babe is

in peril. Fearlessly she climbs mountain heights, or plunges into ocean depths. During a child's sickness, her spirit seems to perform the miracle of abrogating or suspending the laws of the body. She can labor without rest, watch without sleep, subsist without food. An exaltation of motive works the seeming miracles.

There are other motives which exist to some extent in all men, at all times; but they are variously combined, and they operate with various degrees of intensity. According to their several natures, they form the character and determine the destiny of their possessor. What made Columbus hold on in his course, while all his crew mutinied, and while nature herself, acting through the magnet which she had lent him as a guide, seemed to remonstrate against his audacity? What upheld those self-exiles, the Pilgrim Fathers of New England, as they went from England to Leyden, and from Leyden to Plymouth Rock, but a motive that was founded upon the Rock of Ages? In fine, motive determines every thing. It makes the same external act or course of conduct, high or low, joyous or painful, sacred or profane. It gives fertility to our life, or smites it with barrenness. It makes a king on his throne tremble, or a martyr on his scaffold triumph.

Before considering the motives by which you as teachers should be animated, I deem it proper to lay open for your inspection, my own motives for addressing you on this subject.

I come before you, my friends, feeling an unspeakable interest in your personal advancement and professional success. If there be any class of persons toward whom my heart yearns with a tender, gushing, and deathless affection, it is the teachers of our youth. My nerves are intertwined with their nerves; my heart thrills or throbs with theirs; and so close is the affinity I feel for them, that their good or ill fortune is matter of *personality* to me. If I have any earthly ambition, it is that which can be gratified only by their success; and all the high hopes which I do avowedly entertain of a more glorious future for the human race, are built upon the elevation of the teacher's profession and the enlargement of the teacher's usefulness. Whatever ground of confidence there may be for the perpetuation of our civil and religious liberties; whatever prospect of the elevation of our posterity; whatever faith in the general Christianization of the world;—these aspirations and this faith depend upon teachers, more than upon any, more than upon all other human instrumentalities united. And if in the councils of God, there be a gracious purpose of restoring his lost image to the human race, I believe that he will choose and anoint the teachers of youth among the choicest of His ministers for the holy work. In addressing teachers, therefore, I feel

that I stand upon holy ground; for I am in the august presence of the highest interests, mortal and immortal;—I am in the midst of the eternal principles of moral life and moral death. God's law, human accountability, the unending consequences of our conduct, encompass me about. Amid these awful concernments, the most splendid of earth's objects fade into dimness; the most magnificent of earthly ambitions wane and recede, and I am admonished, as with no mortal voice, to speak alike in the love and in the fear of truth.

This, therefore, my friends, is no occasion for flattery. I come not here to feast praise-loving hearts with honeyed words, or to sing lullabies over disquieted consciences. If the worm gnaws in any breast, let it gnaw, until it shall eat out the very pith and core of vanity and egotism. If the fire burns, let it not be quenched, until the dross shall be purged from the gold. If there be a noble-hearted teacher here present, I know that he or she would rebuke me if I should spend the passing hour in magnifying his rights, forgetful of his duties; if I should extol the dignity of his profession, as though he had created it, instead of being obligated by it; or in telling him that because he grasped the implement of Solomon in his hand, he, therefore, must have the wisdom of Solomon in his head. As it is the duty of the faithful physician to probe a wound to the bottom, though the patient does flinch; so it is the office of the faithful friend to unmask any low or unworthy motive which may lurk in the heart of his friend. Would that I could so unfold our responsibilities to the rising generation, and our duties to heaven, that each one of us should clothe himself in the sackcloth of humility, and cry out from the bottom of his heart, "Woe is me, that in performing the great work which the Lord has committed to my hands, I have been so unprofitable a servant."

In considering the motives by which teachers should be governed, I shall begin with the lowest.

I maintain that it is not only right and proper for a teacher, but that it is his duty also, to have reference to the recompense of reward; I mean pecuniary reward, or in the vernacular, *dollars and cents*. In this, as in every other vocation, the workman is worthy of his hire. To say that in proportion as a work is invested with high and sacred attributes, it is therefore to go unpaid for, transcends transcendentalism. When it shall be found that a man's natural appetites for food and beverage shall die out, one after another, as he enlists in more sacred callings, it will be good evidence that a life devoted to holy labor should forego those natural supplies which it no longer needs. When a minister of the gospel, with a family to be educated, can

subsist, as the chameleon was once said to do, on the air; when a missionary to the Arctic regions can keep his blood at the temperature of 98°, without clothing or shelter; or when an apostle, or one greater than an apostle, can sequester himself from all worldly cares and pursuits, and devote his life to training up children in the way they should go, and the ravens shall bring him his food and raiment; then I shall believe that all our teachers ought to do, as some of them are now almost compelled to do—work for nothing and find themselves. But so far as I can learn, the experience is universal in our times, that a healthy stomach, after a strict abstinence of twelve or fifteen hours, will crave food, however pure the conscience may be; or in other words, a conscience void of offence will not replenish a stomach void of nourishment. So a missionary, sent naked to Iceland or Spitzbergen, will freeze, however ardent his benevolence; and the most exalted piety will not be a sufficiently tenacious cement to hold body and soul together, without a little alloy of animal food; or at least, without some chemical amalgam whose principal ingredients are bread and butter.

But while I maintain that it is right for a teacher to make sure of an honorable and equitable salary;—nay, that it would be inexcusable in him to make no provision for his own household—whether that household be in the plural or have just passed into the dual, or still remain in the singular number,—still, when he has deliberately agreed upon a price for his services, all pecuniary considerations should forthwith be dismissed from his thoughts. He has then come under the most solemn obligations to perform a certain amount of duties, and no inadequacy in his compensation, however great, can excuse any neglect in his duties, however small. The pilot must not sleep and suffer the vessel to be wrecked, on the plea of short pay.

What then shall we think of a teacher, who having secured the most liberal salary, seeks to contract his duties within a narrower and narrower limit, and grudgingly performs even those which are embraced within the contracted circle; who spends his purloined leisure in pleasure-seeking, in pecuniary speculations, or without the most cogent reasons in the lottery of school-book making? What of him who clips a half hour from the morning or afternoon session,—which however it may stand in the civil code, is a greater offence in the moral one than clipping the king's coin? What of him who carries his body only to the school-room, while his soul plays truant; and who, when his classes are hungering and thirsting for spiritual food, gives them for bread, a stone; for a fish, a serpent; and for an egg, a scorpion? There is no neglect on earth so criminal as the neglect of a teacher

to do his duties to his scholars; and the darkest dungeon in the realms of "outer darkness" will be reserved for those teachers who through sloth or worldliness suffer these little ones to perish.

There is another class of motives, not indeed of a very high or meritorious character, but which, incur no censure, unless indulged in to excess. I refer to the teacher's desire of general approval, and especially to the mature and time-satisfied opinions of those who have been his pupils. The common credit or discredit, which inures to a workman, for doing his work well or ill, is an allowable incentive to fidelity. The reports which will go abroad respecting the literary proficiencies and moral condition of a school, at the end of a term or a year, must be an auxiliary stimulus to exertion, in every mind that is not either too high or too low to be classed among the human. There is not an artisan or an artist, from a cobbler to a sculptor, who is not elated or depressed by the prevalent opinions of the public respecting the quality of his work. "An advancing school," "a stationary school," "a retrograding school," become expressions of weighty import, when they are uttered by every mouth in the district; when recorded in the school committee's report, to be read in open town-meeting or printed for general perusal, and at last, perhaps, published in the annual Abstract of School Returns. Now, though the condition of a school is modified by many things, yet more than any other thing, it is modified by the character of the teacher. And hence, whatever other impress is stamped upon it, the teacher's image is most conspicuous. In all schools kept by the same teacher for any considerable length of time, he determines the number of the dunces, as well as the number of the scholars and the gentlemen. A teacher who is a dolt himself, makes scholars who are dolts, in the same way that a poor farmer impoverishes a fertile farm. A teacher, therefore, who decries the general capacity of his scholars, disparages himself; and all intelligent people who hear his detractions, say, "No wonder; does not like beget like?" On the other hand, we know that an accomplished teacher will take the roughest boor, and by skillful and constant manipulations will smooth and polish him into a gentleman; he will take the most metallic and hard-hearted wretch, and by placing him in such positions that his own electric currents may flow through him, he will at last endue him with a celestial polarity.

But the future and abiding opinion, formed of a teacher by his pupils, is a far weightier consideration. Such an opinion will be formed and will be expressed. Every person remembers his school teachers. Almost every one is so situated in adult life, that he can express his opinion of his former teachers without fear or favor. If a teacher has

had large numbers under his care, for a series of years, he has sent out a sufficient company to make, by themselves, a very formidable public opinion. In the pleasures or business of life, these former pupils will meet. In recurring to bygone days, the school and the teacher will rise to vivid recollection. Merits and demerits will be remembered, and an honorable or a condemnatory judgment be awarded. When a teacher has kept large schools, and sent out company after company for successive years, there is probably not a day in the year, and perhaps not an hour in the day, when his excellencies or his faults are not rehearsed; and if there were any truth in that old-fashioned superstition, that the right or the left ear burns, as people are speaking well or ill of us, all old teachers must always have, at least one, if not two, very hot and flame-colored ears.

Reflect on this a little, my friends, for it is really worthy of your attention. All handicraftsmen, all cultivators of the soil, who have any regard for their reputation, exercise some care and caution, in regard to the fabrics or the products, which they exhibit at home, or send abroad for sale. The perishable materials of the loom, which hardly survive their manufacture for a year, the consumable products of the earth, the most enduring of which are expected to last only till another harvest, are all so many witnesses, for the time being, of the skill and fidelity of their producers. But these workmen send forth dumb commodities,—things speechless from their birth, that have no memory for past evil or good, that can break forth at the mention of their producer's name, into no ejaculation of heart-felt gratitude, nor utter curses for remembered injuries. But what sort of plants are they which go forth from the teacher's nursery? Are they animals? Will you hear no more from them after a twelvemonth? Or in the common course of nature, will they not last for your honor or shame, as much longer than you last, as their years are now exceeded by yours?

And again, are the products, which go forth from your hands, voiceless? Do they wait for some bystander to discover their origin and to make proclamation of it? Or do they, each in his own sphere, make this proclamation themselves? If a man sends a shabby boot or shoe into the market; if he sends a yoke of badly trained cattle, or a vicious colt, to be sold at the Fair, he puts no earmark on the work of his hands. He gladly compounds for secresy. He feels like a rogue who has counterfeited the current coin,—who desires to pass off his base money and abscond. But the miserable teacher can not deny or conceal his productions. If he does not proclaim them, they proclaim him. They bear his earmark on their bodies and on their

souls as plainly as though they came bleeding from the pillory. The records kept by a teacher who had been in the same school for eleven consecutive years, in Massachusetts, showed that one in every nine of his boys had been sent to the State's prison, the jail, or house of correction. When the question arises, who presided at the formation of a character, the teacher can not prove an alibi. There goes a man whom everybody calls a vile, calumnious bigot; and you, Mr. Arch-bigot, so culled and collated the divine texts as to make him so. You taught the bad Levite to hate the good Samaritan. Indeed the whole subsequent life of a pupil may be considered as a sort of practical commentary, of which the teacher is the text. A pupil may be, not a standing but a walking advertisement of a teacher's incompetency; and by the necessity of the case, the teacher can not help himself. No court of Chancery can grant an injunction to stay his proceedings; the nuisance shouts its origin, and, what is worse, the teacher can not abate it. His only hope and chance are to wait until death shall remove this spiritual offspring from his sight; but death will probably take the parent before the child. I do not say this is true in regard to all scholars and under all circumstances, but it has been and still is true, to such an extent as to justify caution and excite alarm amongst all teachers, at least all permanent ones. And such results are becoming more and more extensively true, every day we live. Just in proportion as the art and science of education advance, just so far will the character of individuals be more and more referred to the specific influences of the teacher under whom they were trained. Early training and adult character will be more and more recognized as cause and effect. The union between teacher and scholar will become closer and closer, and the character of the former will be reflected from the conduct of the latter, in more legible inscriptions of honor or shame.

I have said that pupils will go forth into life, pronouncing praises, or, perhaps, maledictions, upon their teachers, wherever they go. In one respect, this reputation falls short of the truth. A pupil may bestow the highest verbal commendations on a teacher, and express ardent gratitude toward him, but yet with such accompaniments of speech and of manner, as to betray both the teacher's folly and his own. I recollect having once heard a man, who had long passed middle life, when addressing an intelligent audience of at least a thousand people, advocate emulation among scholars, and the bestowment of medals, in schools. To make his argument more effective, he gave us a chapter from his own school history. He described the competition between his classmates and himself for the medal which had been

offered;—how they strove but he won; how swiftly they ran to reach the goal, but how he outran them all; how worthy the honor his rivals were, but how he excelled them and triumphed. In order to prolong and magnify this self-laudation, he introduced the teacher, and bespangled him with garish compliments; because the teacher had had the sagacity to see that the boaster was entitled to the prize. When the egotist had done,—in all that audience of a thousand persons, I do not think there was an intelligent man or woman, who did not say, "Poor Pupil! Poor Teacher! What precious fools you have both made of yourselves!" So, on the other hand, a man may upbraid and vilify a teacher, on account of the treatment received from him,—in such a way, however, that every sagacious hearer shall say, at once, that the teacher must have had the most ample justification for doing all he is blamed for. And this is as true in matters of intellectual instruction as in moral guidance. Suppose a man tell you, how perfect a reader his teacher was, and how careful he was to train him, according to the most perfect models of the art, and then gives you a disgusting specimen of ultra theatrical heroics, in proof of his assertion. As the public become more discerning on this subject, there will be a closer and closer approximation to justice, in the praise or the blame awarded to teachers, on an inspection of their work. In short, every word of a teacher, whether shouted or whispered, awaken an echo which will live forever. Year after year, while he survives, and years after he shall be dead, the reverberations will come back to salute his own ears and the ears of his friends who outlive him, in tones of approval or condemnation.

Thongh an inadequate expression of the truth, yet for want of a better illustration, I would compare each *professional* teacher to a great organ-builder,—each child whom he educates being one of the pipes wrought by his hand into the living instrument. These pipes are all instinct with sound, for such is their nature. Tones of some sort, they will emit, and nothing but death,—nay, not death itself can silence them. The teacher, by his dexterity or his clumsiness, moulds and shapes, opens or contracts these pipes, in accordance with, or in opposition to the laws of his heavenly art. According to the benevolent or the tyrannical spirit of his prelusions, he gives them the form, and breathes into them the soul, which will afterwards go forth, uttering divine or savage sounds. Day by day, and year by year, under his ever-repeated touch, the pliant fibres of their vocal apparatus harden and consolidate into those enduring forms, which shall determine the quality of the articulate music they will afterwards discourse. I pretend to no special quickness of ear, either for poetry or music,

but on entering a school which has been taught for a long time by the same person, it seems to me that I need no imagination, but only the common faculty of hearing, to catch the air or strain with which these organ pipes are spontaneously vocal. You will no sooner set foot in a school-room which has sufferced under a long reign of violence and severity and terror, than you will hear this teacher-built organ growl out its angry dissonance.

In another school, a lovely female teacher is tuning her living instrument to sing such strains as this:

As zephyrs to the Æolian chords,
As dew and sun to flowers;
So sweetly fall her heavenly words
On these glad hearts of ours.

Lit by her smile, the murkiest sky
With Orient splendor glows;
Rain-drops are pearls, and 'neath her eye,
Each snow-flake falls a rose.

Oh grant, Dear God, that we may live,
And win her angel powers;
In turn to childhood's heart we'll give
The heaven she gave to ours.

Or in the case of some noble old teacher, who has spent his life in preparing a soil rich as Eden, and in sowing it with the seeds of high thoughts and pure sentiments, a strain bursts forth loftier and diviner than ever came forth from cathedral organ, or from strong-voiced orchestra with its thousand exulting instruments. His pupils pour out their lyric strains in this wise:

Hail to the Framer of our mortal frames!
Feeble and frail were we,
An insect progeny,
Scorched by the summer, and by winter froze;
Pain choked our first drawn breath,
Disease preluded Death,
And Nature's kindliest elements were foes,
For bodies prone that crawled like worms,
He reared these heaven aspiring forms,
And in each arm and foot and hand,
Put steel-spring fibres for old threads of sand;
Till now in Health's invulnerable mail,
All toils, all perils, fearless we assail;—
Knowing that whatsoe'er in earth is stored
Of giant might, still mightier is its Lord:
In sun or rain
On mount or main,

Torrid or Arctic,—wheresoe'er we dwell,
Nature's fierce powers are liege men of our will;
Hail to the Framer of our mortal frames!
Hail to the builder of our god-like minds!
Through space and time he sought,
Wherever God had wrought;
Saw where the deep foundations of the world were laid,
And measured up the starry dome that arches overhead;
And said, upon this depth and breadth and height of plan,
I'll build the structure of my pupil—Man,
Arts, knowledge, sciences, he took,
With all the tongues wise men have spoke,
And gathered in the Dome of Thought,
The truths wherewith God's realms are fraught,
Till, in the mystic chambers of each brain,
Creation was created o'er again!
Hail to the builder of our god-like minds!
Hail to the Former of our deathless souls!
Tutor, Securer.* Blessed be his name!
Meek follower was he of Him who came
To save the lost. He saved us from the shame
Of Earth's ambitions, vanities, and lies,
And our young hearts baptized with flame,
Whose fount is in the skies.
Copious his lessons overran
With love to God and love to man,
And lest his *Words* we might forget,
His *Life* the holy signet set.
While others proudly sought to show
The vision of a heaven above,
By truth and peace, by joy and love,
He imaged heaven below.
Oh, haste the eternal day,
When like bright stars around
We each shall gem
The diadem
With which his brow is crowned,
Hail to the Former of our deathless souls!

And thus is every professional teacher, through every day of his life constantly preparing,—or rather composing,—some lofty anthem, or some low doggerel, which shall be pealed to his honor or shame, as long as his memory lasts.

How careful would every mechanician be, if each well or ill-made wheel, in all his machines, instead of an industrious and business like humming, or a distressful creaking, should boldly articulate the name of its maker, at every revolution. Who then shall set bounds,

*It is a beautiful fact that the etymon of the word Tutor means to protect, defend, or secure.

even to the rational solicitude which every teacher should feel in regard to those living and speaking products that pass from under his hand?

Another motive which should powerfully urge on a teacher to the full performance of his duty, is the desire to elevate the profession to which he belongs. "Every man," says Lord Bacon, "is a debtor to his profession;"—which means, as I suppose, that every man, by the mere fact of membership, comes under an implied obligation to render that profession some valuable service. Surely it would be held dishonorable, not to say a dishonest act, if a man should join any partnership, corporation, or guild, appropriate to his own personal advantage, some portion of its general funds,—whether those funds might consist of money or of respectability,—and should then, without requital, desert the company he has defrauded. Still worse would it be, if the interloper should bring general discredit upon his fellow-members, or degrade the character of their employment. Each of these offences the incompetent teacher commits. In the first place, does he not pocket more than his equitable share of the public money given for the support of schools; or if I may use a technical phrase, current among rogues, because it so well describes the quality of his conduct, does he not *crib*? In the second place, he degrades the standard of good school-keeping, and covers all his brethren with some degree of odium.

On the other hand, the accomplished teacher not only performs an invaluable service to all his pupils, but he sheds lustre upon all his fellow-laborers, and he elevates the common sentiments of mankind, in regard to the dignity of the employment. By making the profession honorable, he increases its attractive power, as a profession, and thus draws minds of a higher order to engage in it and adorn it. This aggrandizes it and irradiates it still more, and action and reaction hasten the grandest results. The employment itself is thus lifted more and more out of the sphere and reach of ignorance and incompetency. Nor is this all the good service which the accomplished teacher renders. He is perpetually improving old methods, and inventing new ones, for the instruction and government of children. These improvements enable all teachers to do their work better and easier, as well as to do more in the same time. It is the opinion of the best teachers that the art of teaching is yet in an exceedingly rude state, and that its instruments and appliances are yet to be as much improved, as navigation has been improved by steamboats, or land travel by railroads. It is only the incompetent teacher who mistakes the circumference of his nutshell for the outside of the

universe. Some great improvements have already been made, and doubtless, in this, as in all the mechanic arts and in all the sciences, still greater ones are to follow. The black-board is to vivid and exact instruction, what the art of painting was to civilization; and yet the black-board does not perform one-fourth of the service which it will do, when the art of drawing becomes a common attainment. A black-board, to a teacher who can not draw, is, with the exception of arithmetic, very much like a library to a man who can not read. Now, all the losses incurred through deficiency, as well as all the advantages gained by skill, are daily illustrated in the practice of the accomplished teacher. His life is a lesson on the *exhibitory* plan. What Watt and Fulton were to the steam-engine; what Franklin was to electricity, Newton to astronomy, Bacon to philosophy, Columbus and Vasco de Gama to a true knowledge of the earth—all this are accomplished teachers,—the Pestalozzis, the Wilderspins, and the Colburns, to their profession, and its professors. Thousands and tens of thousands,—a profession reaching to the end of time—will do homage to their memories.

Another motive which should operate strongly upon the mind of a teacher, is the desire to be master of his business. Here all selfish and all benevolent promptings coincide, and impel with united force in the same direction. Just so far as any one improves himself as a teacher, he improves himself as a man, and elevates his standing as a citizen. Consider, for a moment, upon what vantage ground a finished teacher stands, and the attainments which are indispensable in his daily business—if he has the good sense to cast away all pedantry—are available in his daily intercourse with men. Let us look at this point a little in detail, for I think many teachers do not fully appreciate, in this particular, the advantages of their position. Even in the lowest and most mechanical departments of a teacher's duty, his attainments are hardly less serviceable, in his daily intercourse with the world, than they are in the school-room. Every teacher of respectable qualifications for the humblest class of our district schools, is a perfect speller of all the common words in our language, he is also a good penman and a good reader. As a grammarian, he can both speak and write the English language with propriety. As a geographer, he is acquainted with every city, mountain, river, and island of any note in the world, knows all the political divisions of the earth; and has the principal statistics of population, commerce, religion, education, and so forth, at the end of his tongue. And as an arithmetician, he can solve, with facility and correctness, at least all the questions that ever arise in the ordinary business transactions of life.

Now into whatever circle or association such a teacher may be thrown, his information will come into frequent demand, and he will be always able to take a respectable, and often a conspicuous part in conversation. He will be better prepared than any others, excepting perhaps a few professional men, to write a letter, draft a circular, or make a report, which, in its orthography, grammar, style and arrangement, shall be substantially faultless. If the news of the day, whether from armies, or from missionaries, suggest any geographical inquiry, he is ready to answer it. Being familiar with arithmetic, he will declare the answer to any question that may arise in this branch, while others are puzzling over the preliminaries; and he will be able to detect, at a glance, the thousand mistakes into which the half educated are constantly falling. I say then, that a competent teacher for a common district school enters any ordinary circle of men and women, or takes part in the business of any organized body,—whether it be a temperance meeting or a town meeting, under very considerable and very desirable advantages. He possesses all these important advantages, too, the first year he begins to teach, and however ordinary the school over which he presides. But suppose him to continue in the business of teaching for twenty or thirty years, what abundant and enviable opportunities does he possess for becoming a real master of his profession, as well as for obtaining great prominence and consideration in society. The permanent teacher will enlarge his knowledge in all directions. He will expand his grammar into philology, rhetoric, and logic. He will turn modern geography backward into ancient. He will make geography, biography, and history mutually illustrate, diversify, and enrich each other. In connection with book-keeping, he will not only learn the common forms of business, but many of the leading points of the Law-merchant. Through mechanical and natural philosophy, especially if to these he adds chemistry, he will become acquainted with that extensive and beautiful field of inquiry,—the application of science to the arts of life. Through political and moral science, he will examine, as it were by a celestial light, the condition of individuals and nations and learn what conduct, what institutions, what form of government leads to their exaltation or abasement. Through astronomy, he will look outward into infinite space, and through geology backward into infinite time; and he will never enter his school-room, or thoughtfully survey the children before him, without thinking of heaven and an hereafter. Besides being a careful reader of every leading work and periodical pertaining to his profession, he will, through newspapers and reviews at least, keep up with the times, as we familiarly express it, and learn the progress

which great principles and great causes are making throughout the world. Now it will not be questioned that a well-bred person of spotless character, and possessing this variety and amplitude of infomration, will be a welcome inmate in any society or family, and will adorn whatever circle he may enter. His manners will please, his kindness will endear, his good humor, nurtured by his intercourse with children, will enliven, his knowledge will instruct, his dignity and worth will win spontaneous deference and respect,—sometimes rising to reverence.

It has been remarked a thousand times, that the profession of the law prepares a man for becoming a politician,—(I use this word here in a good sense,)—because a lawyer, by his daily studies, is becoming familiar with most of the great principles on which the statesman proceeds. So the teacher, if he be true to himself, is daily making acquisitions which assimilate him more and more to all the leading minds, in all the leading departments of life. He becomes a literary and classical critic, and he is consulted by scientific men. On the side of political economy, he approaches the statesman, and on the side of ethics he equals the moralist. As a physiologist, he is better than a physician, and as a trainer of children in the way they should go, he will advance the cause of virtue and humanity, more than as many polemics as could stand within the orbit of Saturn. In himself alone, he is a temperance society and a peace society; he goes for the abolition, not of one evil only, but of all evils, and he is the most effective of Home Missions.

But suppose a teacher, on being asked to compute the value of a cord of wood, at five shillings and sixpence a foot, makes it come to between three and four hundred dollars; or finds, by slate and pencil, that the legal interest, on a note of hand for one year, is just six times as much as the principal; or when inquired of, who wrote the Acts of the Apostles, says it was the apostle Acts; or, when questioned as to what were once considered the four elements,—says, earth, air, fire, and brimstone; or, to take example of men who have been through college, declares that he does not mean to read Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, till he can read it in the original Latin; or does not know what constitutes hearing evidence in law; nor the logical difference between *a priori* and *a posteriroi* reasoning in logic: or what is worse than any ignorance, however thick or black it may be, carries the manners of a haughty pedagogue into society, and demands that men shall say his creed after him, word for word, just as he demands of a child four years old, that he shall repeat his *a*, *b*, *c*, or of a boy in the Latin grammar, that he shall say hic, hæc, hoc; or decides all the momentous questions connected with Prison Discipline,

by the rule of his own school-room;—that in all cases of transgression, corporal punishment is the first resort;—suppose these things, I say, and such as these, to be true, and what man of intelligence and moral culture will desire the company of such a teacher at his table or his fire-side. And yet these are not imagined cases; they are not borrowed from Irving or Dickens, but are veritable facts, and, I blush to say it, of Massachusetts origin.

It should also be a leading motive with every teacher, to avoid the dangers peculiar to his calling. Incident to every occupation and profession among men, there are peculiar dangers. Painters are afflicted with the "Painter's colic." The burnishers of steel die of consumption. Tailors and shoe-makers are in danger of being hump-backed and round-shouldered; and if put to the work very young, they have bandy-legs to match. Watch repairers become squint-eyed, and mere technical lawyers become squint-minded. Rich men are prone to be too conservative, and mere politicians too radical. Surgeons treat human nerves, as though they were pack-thread, and clergymen often lose all relish for innocent enjoyments, become austere and sanctimonious, and are in danger of skipping the duties of this life, in the intentness with which they look after another. Now the teacher's vocation is by no means exempt from this common lot. It has its peculiar exposures, and against them, therefore, the teacher should exercise constant vigilance. In the school-room, the teacher is, and must be, the ultimate court of appeal. All questionable points, whether in lessons or in conduct, come before him for adjudication. He holds accounts both of civil and criminal jurisdiction. He determines all questions of law, as well as all matters of fact. His "terms" last through the year, and probably he decides as many questions each day, as the highest court, in any state or nation in Christendom, does in a twelvemonth. Now all this tends to make him dogmatical and opinionated. I do not say, it necessarily produces dogmatism, or stubbornness in the defense of opinions; but I do say that it tends to these odious qualities, and unless this tendency be counteracted, it will produce them. His decisions, too, he makes extemporaneously. He can not, like a court of Chancery, keep a case before him, until the original parties are dead, and their executors or administrators come in to pray for judgment. This state of things necessitates promptness, if not precipitancy, in the formation of opinions; and hence an incautious teacher, in his intercourse with men, is prone to decide all social, national, or international questions,—questions involving commerce, diplomacy, or war,—in as summary a manner, as when he presided in the school-

house forum, and decided contested points about accent or number, apples or nuts. Now against all circumscription and narrowness in the range of thought and speculation, teachers should stand guard continually. They should practice counteracting mental exercises to prevent their minds from becoming microscopic and pedantically nice; in the same way that a sensible tailor or shoemaker practices counteracting physical exercises against being bow-backed. The teacher should constantly aim at that enlargement of mind, that amplitude of view, which will assimilate the operations of the school-room to the grandest affairs of life, instead of contracting the grand affairs of life to the narrow dimensions of the school-room. By intercourse with business men, he should rectify his generalizations, and by conversation with the progress of the great and busy world, he should give his mind a centrifugal impetus, which will enlarge the diameter, without increasing the eccentricity of its orbit. There is still another point which I hope no one will deem too trivial to be noticed in this connection. Some teachers suffer under those nervous phenomena, commonly called *Fidgets*. Twirling a pencil-case or a watch-key; stroking down a watch-guard; fumbling with a button; making the fingers ride pick-a-pack; rocking the foot; swinging the arms; shrugging the shoulders; see-sawing the body; drumming with the fingers; snapping or cracking the joints; soloing on a whistle or a key; thrusting the hands into the pockets, or—contemptible sight—hanging up the arms, like herrings to be dried, at the armholes of the vest;—in fine, all sorts of ungainly movements, fibrous twitchings and small spasms generally, constitute the odious tricks I refer to. Whether these unseemly exhibitions are electric in their nature; whether they operate as an escapement to carry off superabundant nervous fluid, I pretend not to decide; but I would respectfully suggest to all school-examiners, whether such manners do not disqualify for teaching. For their own sakes, and especially for the sakes of the children, let all teachers call in the surgeon, if necessary, to eradicate these nictitating membranes, or to cut off the nerves that lead to them.

The motives which have thus far been specially enjoined, though in a degree personal to the teacher, are in no respect discreditable to him. I am happy however to rise out of this region into one of purer ether,—to motives untainted by any personal considerations whatever.

I address myself then to those high and enduring motives that grow out of the very nature of the teacher's calling. And here it is obvious, on the threshold, that the teacher presides, not over insentient and inanimate things, but over sentient and animated creatures; not over the stationary and impenetrable, but over the progressive, and

over the most impressible of all the works of the Creator; in fine, he presides, not over the ephemeral or temporal, but over the immortal. No other workman works on such materials. The natures on which he operates shall expand without bound or limit; for, when once created, they are coeternal with their Creator. Hence the smallest influence of a teacher, upon the receptive mind of a pupil, must eventuate in great results. There are no such things, in education, as trifles or insignificances. The subject fails of being appreciated merely because it is so vast; as the earth can not be clasped, like an orange, because of its size. To make it understood, it must be analyzed, and presented in fragments and by piece-meal. And I think it can be easily proved to any teacher, that each day's labor, well or ill-done, will have an important, it may be a decisive effect upon the fortunes of his pupils. And what may perhaps surprise some who have never pondered on the subject, this remark holds true, even in regard to the commonest studies.

Here is a boy learning to write. As he opens his manuscript-book, writes during his hour, and then lays it aside, the progress which he has made or failed to make, in regard to the cut or smoothness of a few letters or lines, seems of little consequence; and yet who that is acquainted in our cities, does not know of many instances, where a man has obtained or lost a clerkship,—and thus secured or missed a competency for life,—by his skill and dispatch, or his want of them, in the single matter of chirography?

A child is learning to spell, but no special pains are taken to make him respell, and respell, until spelled aright, every misspelled word. Hence his danger of error increases with the number of words he begins to use. The best age for mastering the orthography of our language passes by, and the pupil goes out into the world, exposed to the odium of illiteracy, and perhaps incurring still graver consequences. I knew a late case, where a young gentleman of sterling talents, and of great promise, lost the appointment of teacher, in one of our Public Schools, where the salary was fifteen hundred dollars a year because in the written application which he made for the place, the word gram*mar* was spelled gram*mer*. He had been taught, too, in the schools of a city, whose masters received $1500 a year. Now if orthography had been taught to that young man, in a proper manner; if he had ever written exercises in orthography; or had ever seen the misspelled word, *grammer*, gibbeted on the black-board, he would have saved two important things,—his mortification, and fifteen hundred dollars a year. What sort of a song will such a man sing about his old teacher?

A school-boy is untaught or mistaught in reading. He makes ridiculous mistakes in the pronunciation of common words, gives such intonation and inflections as pervert an author's meaning; or worst of all, he is trained to a theatrical and overwrought style of elocution. He leaves school. By and by, in the presence of a smaller or a larger company, he chances to be called upon to read. He exposes his ignorance or his affectation, gets laughed at, and is never put forward more. Clergymen have lost settlements; or what is quite as humiliating, have preached to empty seats, because of their miserable reading; and in long and complicated trials at law, where most of the evidence has been documentary, lawyers have been supposed to win verdicts from a jury, because of the clear enunciation, the intelligibility, and the impressiveness, with which they have read the testimony.

Another pupil has never been indoctrinated into arithmetical principles; his whole instruction, in this branch, having been by arbitrary rule and formula. A place is bought for him in a city counting-room, but, owing to his frequent mistakes, he is dismissed; or in the country, he is appointed to audit the accounts of town or parish officers, makes blunders, is exposed, forfeits his reputation, and so loses all chance of promotion or advancement among his fellow-citizens.

Who, too, does not know that men fail in business, losing not only property, but perhaps character and integrity also, because they did not know how to keep accounts, and hence were ignorant of their real pecuniary condition?

Ask any lawyer, any man of business, or politician, what is the class of remarks usually made, when a man's fitness for any particular service or office becomes a subject of discussion. If three men are to be selected as arbitrators, perhaps a dozen will be named before a complement is agreed on. One man is acknowledged to be conscientious, but he knows nothing beyond the Multiplication Table. Another is well skilled in business, but a suspicion hangs on his integrity. A third, for want of proper guidance, has spent all his school-going days, and all the leisure of his subsequent life, in the abstractions of Mathematics; he knows all the puzzling sums on record:

> "Can tell how far a careless fly
> Would chance to turn the globe awry,
> If flitting round in giddy circuit,
> With leg or wing he kick or jerk it;"

while in all matters pertaining to practical life, he is a ninny and is not competent to superintend the affairs of an ant-heap;—I do not mean one of those imperial ant-heaps, reared by the termites of Africa, but one of those Lilliputian mounds we see in a garden after

a shower. Another is allowed to possess talent and attainment; but he has been educated to believe that every one who does not attend the church he attends, and employ the physician he employs, must be a wicked man, while anybody who does so must be a good one. And thus, through some defect in disposition, in attainments, or in character, which education might and should have remedied, they are set aside.

So in those anti-preliminary meetings, as we may call them,—those private interviews or conversations which iniate initiation,—what are the points which indicate this or that individual as an eligible candidate for office? In four cases out of five,—in nine cases out of ten,—are they not some attributes that have been developed or made prominent in school,—or in college, which is only a higher school? And the case is the same, when the question first arises, whether a man is qualified to be an accountant in a trading house or bank; an overseer in a factory; a superintendent in a mechanic's shop, or an engineer on a railroad. In regard to these first chances, which a man has to show what he is, and to better his condition, education has far more influence than talent. After one has secured his opportunity; after he has reached a position where his capacities can speak for themselves; then I acknowledge that less will depend upon his previous training and more upon his native endowments. But the greatest want of a mass of men is an opportunity to exhibit what is in them. Give them this opportunity, and if they have any vigor, they will display it and insure their fortune. Take this away and their talent rusts in a napkin. The most perfect seed in the world can never evolve its powers, until it finds a soil in which to germinate.

Now all these, and ten thousand more facts like unto them, will never be denied or gainsaid by any person acquainted with the evolution of effects from causes. And what is the motive which the teacher should derive from them? Surely no less than this. His every day's teaching and government will elevate or depress the condition, in all after life, of every pupil in his school. There is not one of all the children around him, on whom his daily instruction and treatment will produce *no* effect. The physical, intellectual, and moral condition of each is to be, at least partially, what he foredooms.

A child has a feeble constitution, or his native stamina have been broken down or enfeebled, in early life, by injudicious exposure or foolish parental indulgence. Perhaps it is now too late ever to make a healthy, athletic man of him. That once attainable blessing may have been forfeited beyond redeeming. What then? Is he not still in a condition to be made either better or worse? By a knowledge and application of the laws of Physiology, may you not so far restore

him, as to save him from two or three fits of sickness, or from a painful, costly period of chronic ailment and debility? If you can not prolong his years to seventy, you may to sixty, or at least to fifty, instead of his dying at thirty-five. If you can not prevent his liability to colds and weak lungs, you may at least save him from consumption and premature death. You may so increase his health that he will he able to fill positions and perform duties of which he would otherwise be incapable. Perhaps you may give him just that additional degree of strength, by which, when encompassed by the perils of the flood, he can put forth the one stroke more which will save him from drowning. Extensively true as this is in regard to boys, how much more so is it of girls. It is no imagination or extravagance to say, that your judicious or injudicious treatment of a delicate girl, during a single winter's school term, may save or lose the mother of a young family. Here you have a whole class of boys, not one of whom gives token of that talent or address which will secure him a seat in the Congress of the United States. What then? Can not you make some of them fit to be senators or representatives in the State Legislature? Or if this, on second thought, looks a little presumptuous, can you not qualify more or less of them for some respectable city or town office?

But perhaps some of you will here remind me of the smith, who had a piece of iron of which he said he would make an axe. But on heating and hardening and hammering it, it proved wholly insufficient for an axe. "Well," said he, "I can heat it again and make a hatchet." But by heating and tempering it the second time, so much of the substance was lost in cinders and scoriæ, that it now proved as insufficient for a hatchet, as it was before for an axe. "Well," said he, "I will at least make a knife of it." So he heated, and tried to temper it the third time; but its texture had been destroyed, and there was only a residuum of dross left. "Ay," cried he, in a pet, "I'll heat you seven times hotter than before, and douse you into the water, and make a mighty great hiss!!"

Now do you say you will have scholars from whom you can make nothing but a mighty great hiss; or perchance, a mighty little hiss,—two or three bubbles only? I reply by asking, whether you may not fall into the same error as did the hero of my story. Doubtless, his piece of iron, in the beginning, would have made a very respectable hatchet; but it was by a series of over-estimates that its owner reduced it, at last, to the smallest kind of "sizzle." Do not teachers and school-officers, too, make the same sort of mistake, when they inflate the ambition of all the boys in the school, by talking to them

about being governors and presidents, and thus disgusting them with the sober pursuits of life? Probably not more than one in a hundred thousand, even in Massachusetts, will ever be governors; and even if it were probable that she could ever have another president, her turn would not come once in fifty years. But all children may be that "noblest work of God, an honest man," which is far better than any chief magistracy of state or nation.

But perhaps you will here retort upon me, that you can not make all children honest. Here, for instance, say you, is a boy whose natural organization is frightfully bad. His head is shaped like the segment of a sphere; his eyes are close together, and his ears close behind his eyes; so that almost the entire mass of his brain lies at the base and in the rear. His cranium resembles that of a tiger or a serpent, rather than that of a man. His father was a devil and his mother no better. He was not only conceived in sin and brought forth in iniquity, but he was nursed at the paps of intemperance and lewdness, from his birth drank milk which was nothing but rum leached through human lacteals, and this too, adulterated by the basest impurities of heart and brain; was trained to steal from the day he could walk, to swear from the day he could talk, and long before talking, could lie in pantomime. If other children are quantities, more or less, dipped out of the infernal cauldron of total depravity, he is its essential oil, its rectified, thrice distilled spirit,—the Prussic acid of it, and the sulphureted hydrogen of it! What can be done, I hear some of you defiantly ask, with a case like this? I acknowledge this to be a tough problem. I admit that there is no extraction of roots so difficult as the extirpation of vice from a heart, which is prone to evil as the sparks to fly upwards. Grant then, that you can not, from such a quasi-monster as has been supposed, make an intelligent, honest, exemplary, high-souled man. But can you, by no possibility, save him from the house of correction or the county jail? Or if this would be hope run mad, can you not save him from the state-prison; or at least reduce his sentence to one of ten years, instead of imprisonment for life? Yes, my friends, the vilest and most intractable of them all, can you not save him from being a thief; or if not from theft, then from highway robbery; or, if not from highway robbery, then from incendiarism and murder; or, if not from these, then from piracy on the high-seas, scuttling ships, and murdering crews; or, once more and finally, from the commission of all these atrocities, together? Can you not reduce him to a single devil, instead of his being a legion? If, animated by a sublime hope, and filled with the wonder-working spirit of love, you can do all or any of these things, we have

reason to believe that you will cause a thrill of joy among the angels of heaven.

Not long since, I visited a prison in a neighboring state, and spent the greater part of the day in private conversations with different prisoners, in order to learn the histories of their temptation and fall, and the spirit in which they received their punishment. While I was there, two new convicts arrived. I went to the receiving lodge, where they were delivered. There was the Prison-book, in which was recorded the names, ages, occupation, offence, term of sentence, and so forth, of all who came to dwell in those gloomy abodes. The book, in which these entries were made, was a great folio, probably of not less than five thousand pages. It had been recently procured, and only a small part of it was filled. How can I express the mournful interest with which I looked along the pages of recorded crime and allotted penalty. What a sententious column was that, in which was written "For two years;" "For five years;" "For ten years;" "For life;"—and that other column containing the words, "Theft;" "Robbery;" "Burglary;" "Attempt to kill," and so forth. Oh, if to these culprits, in their early days, God had sent an angel, in the form of a wise and faithful teacher, would those terrible words ever have been written against their names?—would their names ever have been found in that book?

I have said that I looked with an inexpressibly mournful interest upon the sad pages of that book which had been already filled. But with a sadness far more profound and solemn, did I look upon the pages which had not been filled,—whose clear white sheets had not yet been blackened by the records of guilt and condemnation. We have no adequate ground for hope, that those yet undefiled pages will never be filled; and who are they whose names are to be written therein? The young man, bold, fiery, and reckless, whose veins are fermenting with the new wine of life; but into whose heart no moral alchymist has ever infused a principle which will transmute his tendencies for evil into desires for good;—his name must be there. The rash, brave boy of the school-room;—the ringleader in sport and in mischief; who bears the severest punishments as stoically as an Indian bears fire; whose fatal misfortune is to have parents or teachers insane enough to believe that they can extinguish the fervid spirit within him, which God only meant they should direct;—his name, too, must be there. Ay, and who shall say that the name of the sweet babe in its mother's arms,—whether now gently closing its eyes to sleep, as the tender flower folds its petals at the approach of eve, or whether waking to new-born life and joy after reanimating slumbers;—

Yes, or the same infant coming perfumed with baptismal water from the holy font;—who shall say that his name, too, in consequence of over-indulgence and under restraint, shall not lengthen out that black catalogue of guilt? Teacher, you can forefend the awful hand-writing, in books like these, by a sacred hand-writing upon the soul. Not by charms and talismans, not by phylacteries upon the garments, or frontlets upon the brow, or amulets suspended from the neck; but by a cultivation of the conscience, by the living and sovereign efficacy of the law of God written upon the heart, you may do this holy work.

But we have been looking only at the darkest points in the picture,—at its doleful shadows, and not at its celestial lights. In our schools are to be found the greatest elements of hope for our country and for the world. Bright talents are there, which shall find and follow the foot-prints of the Deity, and reveal to us more of his attributes, by revealing to us more of His marvelous works. The vivid genius is there, which will find new chords in the human soul, to be thrilled with joy. The capacities of benevolence and duty are there, which shall add hosts to the now feeble bands of philanthropists, who shall go forth to do battle with the giant iniquities of the world,—with the Titanian sins of intemperance, of oppression in all its forms, with the spirit of war and with bigotry. The executive and administrative talent is there, which for good or for evil, shall ere long find its way into the counsels and guide the energies of the State, or the vaster energies of the nation. These powers and possibilities are all there, and it is hardly a license of speech to say that you hold them as in the hollow of the hand. Go to your work then, as if worthy the custody and stewardship of these mighty interests. Replenish your energies by the hopes which such resources legitimately supply. Look forward to the glorious results which fidelity on your part must assuredly produce. Stand among your pupils like prophets and seers, and labor to bring nearer the vision which your prescience reveals. Consider yourselves, as you truly are,—vice-gerents of God, placed in authority over the richest of all his provinces, and responsible to a great extent, for their beauty and grandeur and moral well-being.

Here is a boy who seems head-strong and obstinate,—stubborn almost to sullenness;—analyze the case; it may be, that this exhibition of character is founded upon the noble, though untrained principles of conscience and firmness; and if it so be, you have only to manage the case wisely, to make another Martin Luther of him;—a man who will defy the Papal anathemas of his day, as did the old

hero of Wittenburg, in the fifteenth century. Here are two playmates, bound together as it were by some congenial affinity, diligent in study, conspicuous in recitation; but vehement and vociferous, almost beyond endurance. Do not alienate these youthful Boanerges, by the base motive of rivalry and emulation; but rather strengthen their attachment and guide them aright, and by and by, perhaps from different parts of the union, they may meet on the floor of Congress, not to contend with each other, at the head of hostile factions, but to lift their voices together, like true sons of thunder, against corruption in high places. Here is an unsophisticated child, whose voice falters and his eye moistens, as he reads the story of some wounded or imprisoned bird, or of a hare pursued to its death by hounds, quadruped and biped. It was a beaming seraph from the throne of God, then nestling in his heart, which choked that voice and bedewed that eye. Save him from the profanation of ridicule and levity. In the fullness of time, he will go forth to give sight to the blind, to loose the tongue of the dumb, to gather the insane from their living tombs and heal demoniacs in the spirit and with the power of Christ. There sits a little girl, distinguished from all the rest by the simplicity of her dress, and by the tenderness with which she watches the little ones of the school however ill-clad or ill-mannered they may be. No gaudy ribbons delight her eye; no gleeful games can make her forgetful of the safety or the comfort of others. Rescue her from the pride of wealth, from the frivolity and emptiness of fashionable life; and when others shall be wasting their time at theatres and assemblies, she will be a ministering angel to the poor, in their crowded hovels and cellars, and sweetening the earth with her footsteps, as she goes on her errand of mercy and love. Another, as quiet of mien, but of bolder resolve, like Mrs. Fry or Miss Dix, will stand before Governors and Legislatures, hushing the storm of partizan warfare by her rebukes, and making them, for very shame, if for no better reason, provide for the woes of humanity.

These, my friends, and such as these, are the lofty motives, with which every teacher should go to his school, in the morning; with which he should live among his pupils during the day; and in the sustaining consciousness of which, he should seek, at night, the rest which will prepare him for the renewal of his labors. With the faithful and fruitful teacher, not a day will pass, in which he will not so modify and ennoble the character of his pupils, that they will choose a wiser and more exalted course of conduct in the eventful crises of life. He will be making better husbands and wives, better fathers and mothers, and scattering from afar,

blessed eras of goodness and joy all along the future course of his pupils' lives.

Surrounded by these motives, and summoned onward by these hopes, if there be any one who can ever talk of the irksome task of instructing the young, or advocate blows as the chief moral instrumentality,—the first resort in cases of difficulty;—let him throw aside his books and seize the ox-goad; let his talk no longer be of children but of bullocks;—or rather, let him betake himself to stone-hammering, and by cheating his imagination with the grateful delusion that granite blocks are boys' backs, get greater day's work out of his hard bones and harder heart.

What special need is there to exhort teachers to possess their souls in patience? A teacher has no more excuse for passion, because of the thousand oversights and cases of forgetfulness, and carelessness, and waywardness in a group of young children, than an orchardist has for indulging in fits of anger, because his fruits are acrid while they are yet immature, or untouched by the hues of the rainbow while they are yet unripe. Waywardness and what Carlyle calls "un-wisdom," are in the nature of childhood, as much as sourness is in the nature of an apple or a berry, before it has had time to be ripened; or, if any one objects to this expression as too condemnatory of the nature of childhood; still it can not be denied that such have been the transgressions of parents that children do inherit painful susceptibilities of evil. Yet infinitely more blameworthy are the fathers who ate the grapes, than the children whose teeth have been set on edge by their sourness. While human nature remains as it now is, we must expect much of inconsiderateness and aberration in the young. It is the special function and office of a teacher to supply the necessary ameliorating influences. But this transforming work can not be done by one day's labor, any more than harvests can be ripened by one day's sunshine. The sun and clouds might as well refuse to shine and shower, because the various growths of the summer are not perfected in a day. Yet with what calm constancy they pursue their work; and not the waste and loss of the wide wilderness restricts their bounty. Under the slanting beams of the vernal sun, the corn germinates, the fruit trees bud and blossom and the vine shoots up its branches. As yet, however, for all purposes of human utility, they are worthless. But is the sun wearied or discouraged? Does he not ascend the heavens; does he not lengthen his day, and pour down upon them his solstitial fervor? Still, neither in the corn, nor in the fruit is there any sustenance for man, and the young grape is more bitter than wormwood to the taste. For weeks and months that sun

labors on, increasing the ardor of his beams; till, at length, the rich fields wave a welcome to the harvester; the orchards glow with orient-colored fruitage; and in the fullness of gratitude, the grape bursts with its nectarious juices. It is the euthanasia of the year. It is like the dying psalm of a righteous man. Look at that miracle of beauty, the century plant. For lustrums and decades, the seasons and the elements labor on to bring it to perfection, but seem to labor in vain. It absorbs the nurture of generations of cultivators, yet appears to make no requital for their care. But at length its slow maturing powers approach their crisis. The day of its efflorescence comes. The gorgeous flower bursts forth, queenly, beautiful as Aphrodite from the waves, and loading the air with the gathered perfumes of a hundred years. And to you, my friends, this is the moral:—Not a ray of sunshine ever fell upon that plant; not a rain-drop nor a dew-drop ever fertilized or refreshed it; not a kind office of its guardian was ever expended upon it, which is not now remembered and proclaimed in the grandeur of its bloom and the richness of its fragrance. Learn a lesson from the ancient oaks, which you pass daily in your walk to the school-room. In rearing them to their loftiness and majestic proportions, has nature ever grown weary or impatient, since the day when these tiny germs cleft the shell? Of all the occupations among men, the teacher, who knows the nobility of his work, and feels its divine impulses, has the least need of patience. The delver among insensate clods; the hewer of wood; the operative who spins the lifeless thread or casts the monotonous shuttle; the statesman who declares himself constrained to warp the eternal principles of rectitude to accommodate his policy to the ignorance and selfishness of men; the minister who strives to soften hearts, which inveterate sins have ossified; the judge who sends human beings to the state's prison or the gallows, one day's work of whom is enough to crush the life out of a man's heart;—the soldier who slays his fellow-man in battle, or is himself slain;—these have need of *patience*,—or something else I know not what;—but to enjoin patience upon those whose very office and mission it is to prepare children for all the happiness of this world, and to bring the kingdom of heaven round about them, is an intolerable indignity and grievance.

What I long, above all other things upon earth, to see,—what prophets and kings might well desire to see, but as yet have never seen,—is a glorious brotherhood of teachers, whose accomplished minds and great hearts are bound together by their devotion to one object,—and that object a desire to reform the world,—to re-impress upon the heart of man the almost obliterated image of his Maker.

Were teachers animated by the spirit which inspires the martial hero, such a union and for such an object would not be postponed to be seen by happier men in some happier age, but we ourselves should behold it. And can not the sublimer motive give birth to the sublimer effort? Can not those whose office it is to reform their fellow-men, be as devoted and as valiant as those whose office it is to destroy their fellow-men? Is not theirs as good a fight? Will their songs of triumph be less exultant? Will not palms as fadeless crown their victories? If we marvel greatly at the bravery of men engaged in war, have we not far greater reason to marvel at the lukewarmness and unconcern of those who are engaged in the holy cause of enlightening and redeeming the race? Look at the pages of history for thousands of years, and see what those who have sought for military glory,—such lurid glory as it is,—have borne and done. Not commanders only, but subalterns and common soldiers perform feats of valor that seem incredible; and their bodies might be blown to pieces a thousand times, before the bravery of their hearts could be subdued. They scale mountain-lifted forts, whose sides are precipices, while rocks like hail-stones are falling around them. The blazing hill of the terraced battery, they charge to the topmost tier. They rush to the field where the grape is showered whose vintage is blood. As siegers and besieged, they fight by day and sleep by night, within range of that newly-invented and terrific engine of destruction, which can be compared to nothing earthly but a volcano upon wheels. At the battle of Waterloo, Marshal Ney had five horses shot under him, and he dismounted from the sixth and charged the British infantry sword in hand. In naval engagements, how often do officers and men ply their guns, till the very ship,—which to them is the earth, and their only earth,—is swallowed in the waves. When Paul Jones engaged the Serapis, he lashed his ship to the foe in the embrace of death. He received the enemy's broadsides, until his own vessel was almost reduced to a heap of floating splinters. Apparently sinking, he was summoned to surrender. "Surrender," said Jones, "I hav'n't yet begun to fight." Where in our ranks are the Neys and Joneses and a thousand others of the mighty men of valor? Where, amongst us, are the men who will forfeit all prospects of worldly distinction, surrender their ease, pledge their fortunes, sacrifice health, and life too, if need be, to uphold and carry forward the cause of education, which, more than any other, is the cause of God and humanity? If our motives are stronger than those of the shedders of human blood, why should not our arms and hearts be stronger than theirs also? And what do we know under

the heavens, or,—I speak it with reverence,—what do we know above the heavens, which can excel the high emprise in which we are embarked? The world is to be redeemed. For six thousand years, with exceptions "few and far between," the earth has been a dwelling-place of woe. There has not been an hour since it was peopled, when war has not raged, like a conflagration, on some part of the surface. In the haughtiness of despotism, on the one hand, and the debasement of vassalage, on the other, the idea of human brotherhood has been lost. The policy of the wisest nations has been no higher than to punish the crimes they had permitted, instead of rewarding the virtues they had cherished. Throughout the earth, until lately, and now, in more than three of its five grand divisions, the soldier and the priest have divided and devoured it. The mass of the human race has sojourned with animals,—that is, in the region of the animal appetites; and though the moral realms have been discovered, yet how feebly have they been colonized. But it is impiety to suppose that this night of darkness and blood will always envelope the earth. A brighter day is dawning, and education is its day-star. The honor of ushering in this day, is reserved for those who train up children in the way they should go. Through this divinely appointed instrumentality, more than by all other agencies, the night of ignorance and superstition is to be dispelled, swords beat into ploughshares, captives ransomed and rivers of Plenty made to run, where the rivers of Intemperance now flow. At this sight "Angels look on and hold their breath, burning to mingle in the conflict."

But the joys and triumphs of this conflict are not for angels; they are held in trust for those teachers, who, in the language of Scripture, will take them by violence,—that is, by such a holy ardor and invincible determination as will conquer time and fate, and fulfill the conditions, on which, alone, such honors can be won. And if the strong-voiced angel, who flies through heaven crying, "Woe, woe, woe," to the inhabiters of the earth, is ever to be silenced, he will be silenced by the stronger acclamations of those whom teachers have been among the blessed and honored instruments of preparing for the ransom of the world.

NOTE.—This Lecture was delivered at over thirty Conventions or Associations of Teachers in seven different States.

VIII. SOME THOUGHTS ON EDUCATION.

BY JOHN LOCKE.

(Continued.)

LEARNING.

141. You will wonder, perhaps, that I put learning last, especially if I tell you I think it the least part. This may seem strange in the mouth of a bookish man: and this making usually the chief, if not only bustle and stir about children, this being almost that alone which is thought on, when people talk of education, makes it the greater paradox. When I consider what ado is made about a little Latin and Greek, how many years are spent in it, and what a noise and business it makes to no purpose, I can hardly forbear thinking, that the parents of children still live in fear of the school-master's rod, which they look on as the only instrument of education; as if a language or two were its whole business. How else is it possible, that a child should be chained to the oar seven, eight, or ten of the best years of his life, to get a language or two, which I think might be had at a great deal cheaper rate of pains and time, and be learned almost in playing?

Forgive me, therefore, if I say, I can not with patience think, that a young gentleman should be put into the herd, and be driven with the whip and scourge, as if he were to run the gauntlet through the several classes, "ad capiendum ingenii cultum." "What then, say you, would you not have him write and read? Shall he be more ignorant than the clerk of our parish, who takes Hopkins and Sternhold for the best poets in the world, whom yet he makes worse than they are, by his ill reading?" Not so, not so fast, I beseech you. Reading, and writing, and learning, I allow to be necessary, but yet not the chief business. I imagine you would think him a very foolish fellow, that should not value a virtuous, or a wise man, infinitely before a great scholar. Not but that I think learning a great help to both, in well disposed minds; but yet it must be confessed also, that in others not so disposed, it helps them only to be the more foolish, or worse men. I say this, that, when you consider of the breeding of your son, and are looking out for a school-master, or a tutor, you would not have, (as is usual,) Latin and logic only in your thoughts. Learning must be had, but in the second place as subservient only to greater qualities. Seek out somebody, that may know how discreetly to frame his manners: place him in hands, where you may, as much as possible, secure his innocence, cherish and nurse up the good, and gently correct and weed out any bad inclinations, and settle in him good habits. This is the main point; and this being provided for, learning may be had into the bargain; and that, as I think, at a very easy rate, by methods that may be thought on.

READING.

142. When he can talk, it is time he should begin to learn to read. But as to this, give me leave here to inculcate again what is very apt to be forgotten,

viz., that a great care is to be taken, that it be never made as a business to him, nor he look on it as a task. We naturally, as I said, even from our cradles, love liberty, and have, therefore, an aversion to many things, for no other reason, but because they are enjoined us. I have always had a fancy, that learning might be made a play and recreation to children; and that they might be brought to desire to be taught, if it were proposed to them as a thing of honor, credit, delight, and recreation, or as a reward for doing something else, and if they were never chid or corrected for the neglect of it. That which confirms me in this opinion is, that amongst the Portuguese, it is so much a fashion and emulation amongst their children to learn to read and write, that they can not hinder them from it: they will learn it one from another, and are as intent on it as if it were forbid them. I remember, that being at a friend's house, whose younger son, a child in coats, was not easily brought to his book, (being taught to read at home by his mother;) I advised to try another way than requiring it of him as his duty. We therefore, in a discourse on purpose amongst ourselves, in his hearing, but without taking any notice of him, declared, that it was the privilege and advantage of heirs and elder brothers, to be scholars; that this made them fine gentlemen, and beloved by every body: and that for younger brothers, it was a favor to admit them to breeding; to be taught to read and write was more than came to their share; they might be ignorant bumpkins and clowns, if they pleased. This so wrought upon the child, that afterwards he desired to be taught; would come himself to his mother to learn; and would not let his maid be quiet, till she heard him his lesson. I doubt not but some way like this might be taken with other children; and, when their tempers are found, some thoughts be instilled into them, that might set them upon desiring of learning themselves, and make them seek it, as another sort of play or recreation. But then, as I said before, it must never be imposed as a task, nor made a trouble to them. There may be dice and playthings, with the letters on them, to teach children the alphabet by playing; and twenty other ways may be found, suitable to their particular tempers, to make this kind of learning a sport to them.

143. Thus children may be cozened into a knowledge of the letters; be taught to read, without perceiving it to be any thing but a sport, and play themselves into that which others are whipped for. Children should not have any thing like work, or serious, laid on them; neither their minds nor bodies will bear it. It injures their healths; and their being forced and tied down to their books, in an age at enmity with all such restraint, has, I doubt not, been the reason why a great many have hated books and learning all their lives after: it is like a surfeit, that leaves an aversion, behind not to be removed.

144. I have therefore thought, that if playthings were fitted to this purpose, as they are usually to none, contrivances might be made to teach children to read, whilst they thought they were only playing. For example; What if an ivory-ball were made like that of the royal oak lottery, with thirty-two sides, or rather of twenty-four or twenty-five sides; and upon several of those sides pasted on an A, upon several others B, on others C, on others D? I would have you begin with but these four letters, or perhaps only two at first; and when he is perfect in them, then add another; and so on, till each side having one letter, there be on it the whole alphabet. This I would have others play with before him, it being as good a sort of play to lay a stake who shall first throw an A or B, as who upon dice shall throw six or seven. This being a play

amongst you, tempt him not to it, lest you make it business; for I would not have him understand it is any thing but a play of older people, and I doubt not but he will take to it of himself. And that he may have the more reason to think it is a play, that he is sometimes in favor admitted to; when the play is done, the ball should be laid up safe out of his reach, that so it may not, by his having it in his keeping at any time, grow stale to him.

145. To keep up his eagerness to it, let him think it a game belonging to those above him: and when by this means he knows the letters, by changing them into syllables, he may learn to read, without knowing how he did so, and never have any chiding or trouble about it, nor fall out with books, because of the hard usage and vexation they have caused him. Children, if you observe them, take abundance of pains to learn several games, which, if they should be enjoined them, they would abhor as a task, and business. I know a person of great quality, (more yet to be honored for his learning and virtue, than for his rank and high place,) who, by pasting on the six vowels, (for in our language Y is one,) on the six sides of a die, and the remaining eighteen consonants on the sides of three other dice, has made this a play for his children, that he shall win, who at one cast, throws most words on these four dice; whereby his eldest son, yet in coats, has played himself into spelling, with great eagerness, and without once having been chid for it, or forced to it.

146. I have seen little girls exercise whole hours together, and take abundance of pains to be expert at dibstones, as they call it. Whilst I have been looking on, I have thought it wanted only some good contrivance to make them employ all that industry about something that might be more useful to them; and methinks it is only the fault and negligence of elder people, that it is not so. Children are much less apt to be idle than men; and men are to be blamed, if some part of that busy humor be not turned to useful things; which might be made usually as delightful to them as those they are employed in, if men would be but half so forward to lead the way, as these little apes would be to follow. I imagine some wise Portuguese heretofore began this fashion amongst the children of his country, where I have been told, as I said, it is impossible to hinder the children from learning to read and write: and in some parts of France they teach one another to sing and dance from the cradle.

147. The letters pasted upon the sides of the dice, or polygon, were best to be of the size of those of the folio Bible to begin with, and none of them capital letters; when once he can read what is printed in such letters, he will not long be ignorant of the great ones: and in the beginning he should not be perplexed with variety. With this die also, you might have a play just like the royal-oak, which would be another variety; and play for cherries or apples, &c.

148. Besides these, twenty other plays might be invented, depending on letters, which those, who like this way, may easily contrive, and get made to this use, if they will. But the four dice above mentioned I think so easy and useful, that it will be hard to find any better, and there will be scarce need of any other.

149. Thus much for learning to read, which let him never be driven to, nor chid for; cheat him into it if you can, but make it not a business for him. It is better it be a year later before he can read, than that he should this way get an aversion to learning. If you have any contests with him, let it be in matters of moment, of truth, and good-nature; but lay no task on him about A B C.

themselves in two parts of an action at the same time, if they can possibly be separated. I think the Italian way of holding the pen between the thumb and the fore-finger alone may be best; but in this you should consult some good writing-master, or any other person who writes well and quick. When he has learned to hold his pen right, in the next place he should learn how to lay his paper, and place his arm and body to it. These practices being got over, the way to teach him to write without much trouble, is to get a plate graved with the characters of such a hand as you like best: but you must remember to have them a pretty deal bigger than he should ordinarily write; for every one naturally comes by degrees to write a less hand than he at first was taught, but never a bigger. Such a plate being graved, let several sheets of good writing-paper be printed off with red ink, which he has nothing to do but to go over with a good pen filled with black ink, which will quickly bring his hand to the formation of those characters, being at first showed where to begin, and how to form every letter. And when he can do that well, he must then exercise on fair paper; and so may easily be brought to write the hand you desire.

DRAWING.

155. When he can write well, and quick, I think it may be convenient, not only to continue the exercise of his hand in writing, but also to improve the use of it farther in drawing, a thing very useful to a gentleman on several occasions, but especially if he travel, as that which helps a man often to express, in a few lines well put together, what a whole sheet of paper in writing would not be able to represent and make intelligible. How many buildings may a man see, how many machines and habits meet with, the ideas whereof would be easily retained and communicated by a little skill in drawing; which, being committed to words, are in danger to be lost, or at best but ill retained in the most exact descriptions? I do not mean that I would have your son a perfect painter; to be that to any tolerable degree, will require more time than a young gentleman can spare from his other improvements of greater moment; but so much insight into perspective, and skill in drawing, as will enable him to represent tolerably on paper any thing he sees, except faces, may, I think, be got in a little time, especially if he have a genius to it; but where that is wanting, unless it be in the things absolutely necessary, it is better to let him pass them by quietly, than to vex him about them to no purpose; and therefore in this, as in all other things not absolutely necessary, the rule holds, "Nihil invitâ Minervâ."

SHORT-HAND.

¶ 1. Short-hand, an art, as I have been told, known only in England, may perhaps be thought worth the learning, both for dispatch in what men write for their own memory, and concealment of what they would not have lie open to every eye. For he that has once learned any sort of character, may easily vary it to his own private use or fancy, and with more contraction suit it to the business he would employ it in. Mr. Rich's, the best contrived of any I have seen, may, as I think, by one who knows and considers grammar well, be made much easier and shorter. But, for the learning this compendious way of writing, there will be no need hastily to look out a master; it will be early enough, when any convenient opportunity offers itself, at any time after his hand is well settled in fair and quick writing. For boys have but little use of short-hand, and

should by no means practice it, till they write perfectly well, and have thoroughly fixed the habit of doing so.

FRENCH.

156. As soon as he can speak English, it is time for him to learn some other language; this nobody doubts of, when French is proposed. And the reason is, because people are accustomed to the right way of teaching that language, which is by talking it into children in constant conversation, and not by grammatical rules. The Latin tongue would easily be taught the same way, if his tutor, being constantly with him, would talk nothing else to him, and make him answer still in the same language. But because French is a living language, and to be used more in speaking, that should be first learned, that the yet pliant organs of speech might be accustomed to a due formation of those sounds, and he get the habit of pronouncing French well, which is the harder to be done, the longer it is delayed.

LATIN.

157. When he can speak and read French well, which in this method is usually in a year or two, he should proceed to Latin, which it is a wonder parents, when they have had the experiment in French, should not think ought to be learned the same way, by talking and reading. Only care is to be taken, whilst he is learning these foreign languages, by speaking and reading nothing else with his tutor, that he do not forget to read English, which may be preserved by his mother, or somebody else, hearing him read some chosen parts of the Scripture or other English book, every day.

158. Latin I look upon as absolutely necessary to a gentleman; and indeed custom, which prevails over every thing, has made it so much a part of education, that even those children are whipped to it, and made to spend many hours of their precious time uneasily in Latin, who, after they are once gone from school, are never to have more to do with it, as long as they live. Can there be any thing more ridiculous, than that a father should waste his own money, and his son's time, in setting him to learn the Roman language, when, at the same time, he designs him for a trade, wherein he having no use of Latin, fails not to forget that little which he brought from school, and which it is ten to one he abhors for the ill usage it procured him? Could it be believed, unless we had every where amongst us examples of it, that a child should be forced to learn the rudiments of a language, which he is never to use in the course of life that he is designed to, and neglect all the while the writing a good hand, and casting accounts, which are of great advantage in all conditions of life, and to most trades indispensably necessary? But though these qualifications, requisite to trade and commerce, and the business of the world, are seldom or never to be had at grammar-schools; yet thither not only gentlemen send their younger sons intended for trades, but even tradesmen and farmers fail not to send their children, though they have neither intention nor ability to make them scholars. If you ask them, why they do this? they think it as strange a question as if you should ask them why they go to church? Custom serves for reason, and has, to those who take it for reason, so consecrated this method, that it is almost religiously observed by them; and they stick to it, as if their children had scarce an orthodox education, unless they learned Lilly's grammar.

159. But how necessary soever Latin be to some, and is thought to be to

others, to whom it is of no manner of use or service, yet the ordinary way of learning it in a grammar-school, is that, which having had thoughts about, I can not be forward to encourage. The reasons against it are so evident and cogent, that they have prevailed with some intelligent persons to quit the ordinary road, not without success, though the method made use of was not exactly that which I imagine the easiest, and in short is this: to trouble the child with no grammar at all, but to have Latin, as English has been, without the perplexity of rules, talked into him; for, if you will consider it, Latin is no more unknown to a child, when he comes into the world, than English; and yet he learns English without master, rule, or grammar; and so might he Latin too, as Tully did, if he had somebody always to talk to him in this language. And when we so often see a French woman teach an English girl to speak and read French perfectly, in a year or two, without any rule of grammar, or any thing else, but prattling to her; I can not but wonder, how gentlemen have been overseen this way for their sons, and thought them more dull or incapable than their daughters.

160. If therefore a man could be got, who, himself speaking good Latin, could always be about your son, talk constantly to him, and suffer him to speak or read nothing else, this will be the true and genuine way, and that which I would propose, not only as the easiest and best, wherein a child might, without pains or chiding, get a language, which others are wont to be whipped for at school, six or seven years together; but also as that, wherein at the same time he might have his mind and manners formed, and he be instructed to boot in several sciences, such as are a good part of geography, astronomy, chronology, anatomy, besides some parts of history, and all other parts of knowledge of things, that fall under the senses, and require little more than memory. For there, if we would take the true way, our knowledge should begin, and in those things be laid the foundation; and not in the abstract notions of logic and metaphysics, which are fitter to amuse, than inform the understanding, in its first setting out towards knowledge. When young men have had their heads employed a while in those abstract speculations, without finding the success and improvement, or that use of them which they expected, they are apt to have mean thoughts, either of learning, or themselves; they are tempted to quit their studies, and throw away their books, as containing nothing but hard words, and empty sounds: or else to conclude that if there be any real knowledge in them, they themselves have not understandings capable of it. That this is so, perhaps I could assure you upon my own experience. Amongst other things to be learned by a young gentleman in this method, whilst others of his age are wholly taken up with Latin and languages, I may also set down geometry for one, having known a young gentleman, bred something after this way, able to demonstrate several propositions in Euclid, before he was thirteen.

161. But if such a man can not be got, who speaks good Latin, and, being able to instruct your son in all these parts of knowledge, will undertake it by this method; the next best is to have him taught as near this way as may be, which is by taking some easy and pleasant book, such as Æsop's Fables, and writing the English translation, (made as literal as it can be,) in one line, and the Latin words, which answer each of them, just over it in another. These let him read every day over and over again, till he perfectly understands the

Latin; and then go on to another fable, till he be also perfect in that, not omitting what he is already perfect in, but sometimes reviewing that, to keep it in his memory. And when he comes to write, let these be set him for copies; which, with the exercise of his hand, will also advance him in Latin. This being a more imperfect way than by talking Latin unto him, the formation of the verbs first, and afterwards the declensions of the nouns and pronouns perfectly learnt by heart, may facilitate his acquaintance with the genius and manner of the Latin tongue, which varies the signification of verbs and nouns, not as the modern languages do, by particles prefixed, but by changing the last syllables. More than this of grammar I think he need not have, till he can read himself "Sanctii Minerva," with Scioppius and Perizonius's notes.

In teaching of children this too, I think, it is to be observed, that in most cases, where they stick, they are not to be farther puzzled, by putting them upon finding it out themselves; as by asking such questions as these, viz.: Which is the nominative case in the sentence they are to construe? or demanding what "aufero" signifies, to lead them to the knowledge what "abstulere" signifies, &c., when they can not readily tell. This wastes time only in disturbing them; for whilst they are learning, and applying themselves with attention, they are to be kept in good humor, and every thing made easy to them, and as pleasant as possible. Therefore, wherever they are at a stand, and are willing to go forwards, help them presently over the difficulty without any rebuke or chiding: remembering that, where harsher ways are taken, they are the effect only of pride and peevishness in the teacher, who expects children should instantly be masters of as much as he knows: whereas he should rather consider, that his business is to settle in them habits, not angrily to inculcate rules, which serve for little in the conduct of our lives; at least are of no use to children, who forget them as soon as given. In sciences where their reason is to be exercised, I will not deny, but this method may sometimes be varied, and difficulties proposed on purpose to excite industry, and accustom the mind to employ its whole strength and sagacity in reasoning. But yet, I guess, this is not to be done to children whilst very young; nor at their entrance upon any sort of knowledge: then every thing of itself is difficult, and the great use and skill of a teacher is to make all as easy as he can. But particularly in learning of languages there is least occasion for posing of children. For languages being to be learned by rote, custom, and memory, are then spoken in greatest perfection, when all rules of grammar are utterly forgotten. I grant the grammar of a language is sometimes very carefully to be studied: but it is only to be studied by a grown man, when he applies himself to the understanding of any language critically, which is seldom the business of any but professed scholars. This, I think, will be agreed to, that, if a gentleman be to study any language, it ought to be that of his own country, that he may understand the language, which he has constant use of, with the utmost accuracy.

There is yet a farther reason, why masters and teachers should raise no difficulties to their scholars; but, on the contrary, should smooth their way, and readily help them forwards, where they find them stop. Children's minds are narrow and weak, and usually susceptible but of one thought at once. Whatever is in a child's head, fills it for the time, especially if set on with any passion. It should therefore be the skill and art of the teacher, to clear their heads of all other thoughts, whilst they are learning of any thing, the better

to make room for what he would instill into them, that it may be received with attention and application, without which it leaves no impression. The natural temper of children disposes their minds to wander. Novelty alone takes them; whatever that presents, they are presently eager to have a taste of, and are as soon satiated with it. They quickly grow weary of the same thing, and so have almost their whole delight in change and variety. It is a contradiction to the natural state of childhood, for them to fix their fleeting thoughts. Whether this be owing to the temper of their brains, or the quickness or instability of their animal spirits, over which the mind has not yet got a full command; this is visible, that it is a pain to children to keep their thoughts steady to any thing. A lasting continued attention is one of the hardest tasks can be imposed on them: and therefore, he that requires their application, should endeavor to make what he proposes as grateful and agreeable as possible; at least, he ought to take care not to join any displeasing or frightful idea with it. If they come not to their books with some kind of liking and relish, it is no wonder their thoughts should be perpetually shifting from what disgusts them, and seek better entertainment in more pleasing objects, after which they will unavoidably be gadding.

It is, I know, the usual method of tutors, to endeavor to procure attention in their scholars, and to fix their minds to the business in hand, by rebukes and corrections, if they find them ever so little wandering. But such treatment is sure to produce the quite contrary effect. Passionate words or blows from the tutor fill the child's mind with terror and affrightment, which immediately takes it wholly up, and leaves no room for other impressions. I believe there is nobody, that reads this, but may recollect, what disorder hasty or imperious words from his parents or teachers have caused in his thoughts; how for the time it has turned his brains, so that he scarce knew what was said by, or to him: he presently lost the sight of what he was upon; his mind was filled with disorder and confusion, and in that state was no longer capable of attention to any thing else.

It is true, parents and governors ought to settle and establish their authority, by an awe over the minds of those under their tuition; and to rule them by that: but when they have got an ascendant over them, they should use it with great moderation, and not make themselves such scarecrows, that their scholars should always tremble in their sight. Such an austerity may make their government easy to themselves, but of very little use to their pupils. It is impossible children should learn any thing, whilst their thoughts are possessed and disturbed with any passion, especially fear, which makes the strongest impression on their yet tender and weak spirits. Keep the mind in an easy calm temper, when you would have it receive your instructions, or any increase of knowledge. It is as impossible to draw fair and regular characters on a trembling mind, as on a shaking paper.

The great skill of a teacher is to get and keep the attention of his scholar: whilst he has that, he is sure to advance as fast as the learner's abilities will carry him; and without that, all his bustle and pother will be to little or no purpose. To attain this, he should make the child comprehend, (as much as may be,) the usefulness of what he teaches him; and let him see, by what he has learned, that he can do something which he could not do before; something which gives him some power and real advantage above others, who are

ignorant of it. To this he should add sweetness in all his instructions; and by a certain tenderness in his whole carriage, make the child sensible that he loves him, and designs nothing but his good; the only way to beget love in the child, which will make him hearken to his lessons, and relish what he teaches him.

Nothing but obstinacy should meet with any imperiousness or rough usage. All other faults should be corrected with a gentle hand; and kind encouraging words will work better and more effectually upon a willing mind and even prevent a good deal of that perverseness, which rough and imperious usage often produces in well-disposed and generous minds. It is true, obstinacy and willful neglects must be mastered, even though it cost blows to do it: but I am apt to think perverseness in the pupils is often the effect of forwardness in the tutor: and that most children would seldom have deserved blows, if needless and misapplied roughness had not taught them ill-nature, and given them an aversion to their teacher and all that comes from him.

Inadvertency, forgetfulness, unsteadiness, and wandering of thought, are the natural faults of childhood; and therefore, when they are not observed to be willful, are to be mentioned softly, and gained upon by time. If every slip of this kind produces anger and rating, the occasions of rebuke and corrections will return so often that the tutor will be a constant terror and uneasiness to his pupils; which one thing is enough to hinder their profiting by his lessons, and to defeat all his methods of instruction.

Let the awe he has got upon their minds be so tempered with the constant marks of tenderness and good will, that affection may spur them to their duty, and make them find a pleasure in complying with his dictates. This will bring them with satisfaction to their tutor; make them hearken to him, as to one who is their friend, that cherishes them, and takes pains for their good; this will keep their thoughts easy and free, whilst they are with him, the only temper wherein the mind is capable of receiving new informations, and of admitting into itself those impressions, which if not taken and retained, all that they and their teacher do together is lost labor; there is much uneasiness, and little learning.

162. When, by this way of interlining Latin and English one with another, he has got a moderate knowledge of the Latin tongue, he may then be advanced a little farther to the reading of some other easy Latin book, such as Justin, or Eutropius; and to make the reading and understanding of it the less tedious and difficult to him, let him help himself, if he please, with the English translation. Nor let the objection, that he will then know it only by rote, fright any one. This, when well considered, is not of any moment against, but plainly for, this way of learning a language; for languages are only to be learned by rote; and a man, who does not speak English or Latin perfectly by rote, so that having thought of the thing he would speak of, his tongue of course, without thought of rule or grammar, falls into the proper expression and idiom of that language, does not speak it well, nor is master of it. And I would fain have any one name to me that tongue, that any one can learn or speak as he should do, by the rules of grammar. Languages were made not by rules or art, but by accident, and the common use of the people. And he that will speak them well, has no other rule but that; nor any thing to trust to but his memory, and the habit of speaking after the fashion learned from those that are allowed to speak properly, which, in other words, is only to speak by rote.

GRAMMAR.

It will possibly be asked here, Is grammar then of no use? And have those who have taken so much pains in reducing several languages to rules and observations, who have writ so much about declensions and conjugations, about concords and syntaxis, lost their labor, and been learned to no purpose? I say not so; grammar has its place too. But this I think I may say, there is more stir a great deal made with it than there needs, and those are tormented about it, to whom it does not at all belong; I mean children, at the age wherein they are usually perplexed with it in grammar schools.

There is nothing more evident, than that languages learned by rote serve well enough for the common affairs of life, and ordinary commerce. Nay, persons of quality of the softer sex, and such of them as have spent their time in well-bred company, show us, that this plain natural way, without the least study or knowledge of grammar, can carry them to a great degree of elegancy and politeness in their language: and there are ladies who, without knowing what tenses and participles, adverbs and prepositions are, speak as properly, and as correctly, (they might take it for an ill compliment, if I said as any country school-master,) as most gentlemen who have been bred up in the ordinary methods of grammar schools. Grammar, therefore, we see may be spared in some cases. The question then will be, To whom should it be taught, and when? To this I answer,

1. Men learn languages for the ordinary intercourse of society, and communication of thoughts in common life, without any farther design in their use of them. And for this purpose the original way of learning a language by conversation not only serves well enough, but is to be preferred as the most expedite, proper, and natural. Therefore, to this use of language one may answer, that grammar is not necessary. This so many of my readers must be forced to allow, as understand what I here say, and who conversing with others, understand them without having ever been taught the grammar of the English tongue: which I suppose is the case of incomparably the greatest part of Englishmen; of whom I have never yet known any one who learned his mother-tongue by rules.

2. Others there are, the greatest part of whose business in this world is to be done with their tongues, and with their pens; and to those it is convenient, if not necessary, that they should speak properly and correctly, whereby they may let their thoughts into other men's minds the more easily, and with the greater impression. Upon this account it is, that any sort of speaking, so as will make him be understood, is not thought enough for a gentleman. He ought to study grammar, amongst the other helps of speaking well; but it must be the grammar of his own tongue, of the language he uses, that he may understand his own country speech nicely, and speak it properly, without shocking the ears of those it is addressed to with solecisms and offensive irregularities. And to this purpose grammar is necessary; but it is the grammar only of their own proper tongues, and to those only who would take pains in cultivating their language, and in perfecting their styles. Whether all gentlemen should not do this, I leave to be considered, since the want of propriety, and grammatical exactness, is thought very mis-becoming one of that rank, and usually draws on one guilty of such faults the censure of having had a lower breeding, and worse company than suits with his quality. If this be so, (as I suppose it

is,) it will be matter of wonder, why young gentlemen are forced to learn the grammars of foreign and dead languages, and are never once told of the grammar of their own tongues: they do not so much as know there is any such thing, much less is it made their business to be instructed in it. Nor is their own language ever proposed to them as worthy their care and cultivating, though they have daily use of it, and are not seldom in the future course of their lives judged of, by their handsome or awkward way of expressing themselves in it. Whereas the languages whose grammars they have been so much employed in, are such as probably they shall scarce ever speak or write; or, if upon occasion this should happen, they shall be excused for the mistakes and faults they make in it. Would not a Chinese, who took notice of this way of breeding, be apt to imagine, that all our young gentlemen were designed to be teachers and professors of the dead languages of foreign countries, and not to be men of business in their own?

3. There is a third sort of men, who apply themselves to two or three foreign. dead, (and which amongst us are called the learned,) languages, make them their study, and pique themselves upon their skill in them. No doubt those who propose to themselves the learning of any language with this view, and would be critically exact in it, ought carefully to study the grammar of it. I would not be mistaken here, as if this were to under-value Greek and Latin: I grant these are languages of great use and excellency; and a man can have no place amongst the learned, in this part of the world, who is a stranger to them. But the knowledge a gentleman would ordinarily draw for his use, out of the Roman and Greek writers, I think, he may attain without studying the grammars of those tongues, and, by bare reading, may come to understand them sufficiently for all his purposes. How much farther he shall at any time be concerned to look into the grammar and critical niceties of either of these tongues, he himself will be able to determine, when he comes to propose to himself the study of any thing that shall require it. Which brings me to the other part of the inquiry, viz.:—

"When grammar should be taught?"

To which, upon the premised grounds, the answer is obvious, viz.:—

That if grammar ought to be taught at any time, it must be to one that can speak the language already: how else can he be taught the grammar of it? This, at least, is evident from the practice of the wise and learned nations amongst the ancients. They made it a part of education to cultivate their own, not foreign tongues. The Greeks counted all other nations barbarous, and had a contempt for their languages. And, though the Greek learning grew in credit amongst the Romans, towards the end of their commonwealth, yet it was the Roman tongue that was made the study of their youth: their own language they were to make use of, and therefore it was their own language they were instructed and exercised in.

But more particularly to determine the proper season for grammar; I do not see how it can reasonably be made any one's study, but as an introduction to rhetoric: when it is thought time to put any one upon the care of polishing his tongue, and of speaking better than the illiterate, then is the time for him to be instructed in the rules of grammar, and not before. For grammar being to teach men not to speak, but to speak correctly, and according to the exact rules of the tongue, which is one part of elegancy, there is little use of the one to

him that has no need of the other; where rhetoric is not necessary, grammar may be spared. I know not why any one should waste his time and beat his head about the Latin grammar, who does not intend to be a critic, or make speeches, and write dispatches in it. When any one finds in himself a necessity or disposition to study any foreign language to the bottom, and to be nicely exact in the knowledge of it, it will be time enough to take a grammatical survey of it. If his use of it be only to understand some books writ in it without a critical knowledge of the tongue itself, reading alone, as I have said, will attain this end, without charging the mind with the multiplied rules and intricacies of grammar.

163. For the exercise of his writing, let him sometimes translate Latin into English: but the learning of Latin being nothing but the learning of words, a very unpleasant business both to young and old, join as much other real knowledge with it as you can, beginning still with that which lies most obvious to the senses; such as is the knowledge of minerals, plants, and animals, and particularly timber and fruit trees, their parts and ways of propagation, wherein a great deal may be taught a child, which will not be useless to the man. But more especially geography, astronomy, and anatomy. But whatever you are teaching him, have a care still, that you do not clog him with too much at once; or make any thing his business but downright virtue, or reprove him for any thing but vice, or some apparent tendency to it.

THEMES.

164. But, if, after all, his fate be to go to school to get the Latin tongue, it will be in vain to talk to you concerning the method I think best to be observed in schools. You must submit to that you find there, not expect to have it changed for your son; but yet by all means obtain, if you can, that he be not employed in making Latin themes and declamations, and, least of all, verses of any kind.* You may insist on it, if it will do any good, that you have no design to make him either a Latin orator or poet, but barely would have him understand perfectly a Latin author; and that you observe those who teach any of the modern languages, and that with success, never amuse their scholars to make speeches or verses either in French or Italian, their business being language barely and not invention.

165. But to tell you, a little more fully, why I would not have him exercised in making of themes and verses: 1. As to themes, they have, I confess, the pretense of something useful, which is to teach people to speak handsomely and well on any subject; which, if it could be attained this way, I own would be a great advantage; there being nothing more becoming a gentleman, nor more useful in all the occurrences of life, than to be able, on any occasion, to speak well, and to the purpose. But this I say, that the making of themes, as is usual in schools, helps not one jot towards it: for do but consider what it is in making a theme that a young lad is employed about; it is to make a speech on some Latin saying, as "Omnia vincitamor," or "Non licet in bello bis peccare," &c. And here the poor lad, who wants knowledge of those things he is to speak of, which is to be had only from time and observation, must set his invention on

* In this and several following topics, the author seems entirely to overlook the benefits of *practice*, the most effectual method of learning.—Ed.

the rack, to say something where he knows nothing, which is a sort of Ægyptian tyranny, to bid them make bricks who have not yet any of the materials. And therefore it is usual, in such cases, for the poor children to go to those of higher forms with this petition, "Pray give me a little sense;" which whether it be more reasonable or more ridiculous, is not easy to determine. Before a man can be in any capacity to speak on any subject, it is necessary he be acquainted with it; or else it is as foolish to set him to discourse of it, as to set a blind man to talk of colors, or a deaf man of music. And would you not think him a little cracked who would require another to make an argument on a moot-point, who understands nothing of our laws? And what, I pray, do school-boys understand concerning those matters, which are used to be proposed to them in their themes, as subjects to discourse on, to whet and exercise their fancies?

166. In the next place, consider the language that their themes are made in: it is Latin, a language foreign in their country, and long since dead every where; a language which your son, it is a thousand to one, shall never have an occasion once to make a speech in as long as he lives, after he comes to be a man; and a language, wherein the manner of expressing one's self is so far different from ours, that to be perfect in that, would very little improve the purity and facility of his English style. Besides that, there is now so little room or use for set speeches in our own language in any part of our English business, that I can see no pretense for this sort of exercise in our schools; unless it can be supposed, that the making of set Latin speeches should be the way to teach men to speak well in English extempore. The way to that I should think rather to be this: that there should be proposed to young gentlemen rational and useful questions, suited to their age and capacities, and on subjects not wholly unknown to them, nor out of their way: such as these, when they are ripe for exercises of this nature, they should, extempore, or after a little meditation upon the spot, speak to, without penning of any thing. For I ask, if he will examine the effects of this way of learning to speak well, who speak best in any business, when occasion calls them to it upon any debate; either those who have accustomed themselves to compose and write down beforehand what they would say, or those who thinking only of the matter, to understand that as well as they can, use themselves only to speak extempore? And he that shall judge by this, will be little apt to think, that the accustoming him to studied speeches, and set compositions, is the way to fit a young gentleman for business.

167. But, perhaps, we shall be told, it is to improve and perfect them in the Latin tongue. It is true, that is their proper business at school; but the making of themes is not the way to it: that perplexes their brains, about invention of things to be said, not about the signification of words to be learnt; and, when they are making a theme, it is thoughts they search and sweat for, and not language. But the learning and mastery of a tongue, being uneasy and unpleasant enough in itself, should not be cumbered with any other difficulties, as is done in this way of proceeding. In fine, if boys' invention be to be quickened by such exercise, let them make themes in English, where they have facility, and a command of words, and will better see what kind of thoughts they have, when put into their own language: and, if the Latin tongue be to be learned, let it be done in the easiest way, without toiling and disgusting the mind by so uneasy an employment as that of making speeches joined to it.

VERSIFYING.

168. If these may be any reasons against children's making Latin themes at school, I have much more to say, and of more weight, against their making verses of any sort: for if he has no genius to poetry, it is the most unreasonable thing in the world to torment a child, and waste his time about that which can never succeed; and if he have a poetic vein, it is to me the strangest thing in the world, that the father should desire or suffer it to be cherished or improved. Methinks the parents should labor to have it stifled and suppressed as much as may be; and I know not what reason a father can have to wish his son a poet, who does not desire to have him bid defiance to all other callings and business: which is not yet the worst of the case; for if he proves a successful rhymer, and gets once the reputation of a wit, I desire it may be considered what company and places he is likely to spend his time in, nay, and estate too: for it is very seldom seen, that any one discovers mines of gold, or silver in Parnassus. It is a pleasant air, but a barren soil; and there are very few instances of those who have added to their patrimony by any thing they have reaped from thence. Poetry and gaming, which usually go together, are alike in this too, that they seldom bring any advantage, but to those who have nothing else to live on. Men of estates almost constantly go away losers; and it is well if they escape at a cheaper rate than their whole estates, or the greatest part of them. If, therefore, you would not have your son the fiddle to every jovial company, without whom the sparks could not relish their wine, nor know how to pass an afternoon idly; if you would not have him waste his time and estate to divert others, and contemn the dirty acres left him by his ancestors, I do not think you will much care he should be a poet, or that his schoolmaster should enter him in versifying. But yet, if any one will think poetry a desirable quality in his son, and that the study of it would raise his fancy and parts, he must needs yet confess, that, to that end, reading the excellent Greek and Roman poets is of more use than making bad verses of his own, in a language that is not his own. And he, whose design it is to excel in English poetry, would not, I guess, think the way to it were to make his first essays in Latin verses.

MEMORITER RECITATION.

169. Another thing, very ordinary in the vulgar method of grammar-schools, there is, of which I see no use at all, unless it be to balk young lads in the way to learning languages, which, in my opinion, should be made as easy and pleasant as may be; and that which was painful in it, as much as possible, quite removed. That which I mean, and here complain of, is, their being forced to learn by heart great parcels of the authors which are taught them; wherein I can discover no advantage at all, especially to the business they are upon. Languages are to be learnt only by reading and talking, and not by scraps of authors got by heart; which when a man's head is stuffed with, he has got the just furniture of a pedant, and it is the ready way to make him one, than which there is nothing less becoming a gentleman. For what can be more ridiculous, than to mix the rich and handsome thoughts and sayings of others with a deal of poor stuff of his own; which is thereby the more exposed; and has no other grace in it, nor will otherwise recommend the speaker than a thread-bare

russet coat would, that was set off with large patches of scarlet and glittering brocade? Indeed, where a passage comes in the way, whose matter is worth remembrance, and the expression of it very close and excellent, (as there are many such in the ancient authors,) it may not be amiss to lodge it in the minds of young scholars, and with such admirable strokes of those great masters sometimes exercise the memories of school-boys: but their learning of their lessons by heart, as they happen to fall out in their books, without choice or distinction, I know not what it serves for, but to mispend their time and pains, and give them a disgust and aversion to their books, wherein they find nothing but useless trouble.

170. I hear it is said, that children should be employed in getting things by heart, to exercise and improve their memories. I could wish this were said with as much authority of reason, as it is with forwardness of assurance; and that this practice were established upon good observation, more than old custom; for it is evident, that strength of memory is owing to a happy constitution, and not to any habitual improvement got by exercise. It is true, what the mind is intent upon, and for fear of letting it slip, often imprints afresh on itself by frequent reflection, that it is apt to retain, but still according to its own natural strength of retention. An impression made on beeswax or lead will not last so long as on brass or steel. Indeed, if it be renewed often, it may last the longer; but every new reflecting on it is a new impression, and it is from thence one is to reckon, if one would know how long the mind retains it. But the learning pages of Latin by heart, no more fits the memory for retention of any thing else, than the graving of one sentence in lead, makes it the more capable of retaining firmly any other characters. If such a sort of exercise of the memory were able to give it strength, and improve our parts, players of all other people must needs have the best memories, and be the best company: but whether the scraps they have got into their head this way, make them remember other things the better; and whether their parts be improved proportionably to the pains they have taken in getting by heart other sayings; experience will show. Memory is so necessary to all parts and conditions of life, and so little is to be done without it, that we are not to fear it should grow dull and useless for want of exercise, if exercise would make it grow stronger. But I fear this faculty of the mind is not capable of much help and amendment in general, by any exercise or endeavor of ours, at least not by that used upon this pretense in grammar-schools. And if Xerxes was able to call every common soldier by his name, in his army, that consisted of no less than a hundred thousand men, I think it may be guessed, he got not this wonderful ability by learning his lessons by heart, when he was a boy. This method of exercising and improving the memory by toilsome repetitions, without book, of what they read, is, I think, little used in the education of princes; which, if it had that advantage talked of, should be as little neglected in them, as in the meanest school-boys; princes having as much need of good memories as any men living, and have generally an equal share in this faculty with other men: though it has never been taken care of this way. What the mind is intent upon, and careful of, that it remembers best, and for the reason above mentioned: to which if method and order be joined, all is done, I think, that can be, for the help of a weak memory; and he that will take any other way to do it, especially that of charging it with a train of other people's words, which he that learns cares not

for; will, I guess, scarce find the profit answer half the time and pains employed in it.

I do not mean hereby, that there should be no exercise given to children's memories. I think their memories should be employed, but not in learning by rote whole pages out of books, which, the lesson being once said, and that task over, are delivered up again to oblivion, and neglected forever. This mends neither the memory nor the mind. What they should learn by heart out of authors, I have above mentioned: and such wise and useful sentences being once given in charge to their memories, they should never be suffered to forget again, but be often called to account for them: whereby, besides the use those sayings may be to them in their future life, as so many good rules and observations; they will be taught to reflect often, and bethink themselves what they have to remember, which is the only way to make the memory quick and useful. The custom of frequent reflection will keep their minds from running adrift, and call their thoughts home from useless inattentive roving: and therefore, I think, it may do well to give them something every day to remember; but something still, that is in itself worth the remembering, and what you would never have out of mind, whenever you call, or they themselves search for it. This will oblige them often to turn their thoughts inwards, than which you can not wish them a better intellectual habit.

LATIN.

171. But under whose care soever a child is put to be taught, during the tender and flexible years of his life, this is certain, it should be one who thinks Latin and language the least part of education; one, who knowing how much virtue, and a well-tempered soul, is to be preferred to any sort of learning or language, makes it his chief business to form the mind of his scholars, and give that a right disposition: which, if once got, though all the rest should be neglected, would, in due time, produce all the rest; and which if it be not got and settled, so as to keep out ill and vicious habits, languages and sciences, and all the other accomplishments of education, will be to no purpose, but to make the worse or more dangerous man. And indeed, whatever stir there is made about getting of Latin, as the great and difficult business; his mother may teach it him herself, if she will but spend two or three hours in a day with him, and make him read the evangelists in Latin to her: for she need but buy a Latin Testament, and having got somebody to mark the last syllable but one, where it is long, in words above two syllables, (which is enough to regulate her pronunciation, and accenting the words,) read daily in the Gospels; and then let her avoid understanding them in Latin, if she can. And when she understands the Evangelists in Latin, let her, in the same manner, read Æsop's Fables, and so proceed on to Eutropius, Justin, and other such books. I do not mention this as an imagination of what I fancy may do, but as of a thing I have known done, and the Latin tongue, with ease, got this way.

But to return to what I was saying: he that takes on him the charge of bringing up young men, especially young gentlemen, should have something more in him than Latin, more than even a knowledge in the liberal sciences; he should be a person of eminent virtue and prudence, and with good sense have good humor, and the skill to carry himself with gravity, ease, and kind-

ness, in a constant conversation with his pupils. But of this I have spoken at large in another place.

GEOGRAPHY.

172. At the same time that he is learning French and Latin, a child, as has been said, may also be entered in arithmetic, geography, chronology, history, and geometry too. For if these be taught him in French or Latin, when he begins once to understand either of these tongues, he will get a knowledge in these sciences, and the language to boot.

Geography, I think, should be begun with; for the learning of the figure of the globe, the situation and boundaries of the four parts of the world, and that of particular kingdoms and countries, being only an exercise of the eyes and memory, a child with pleasure will learn and retain them: and this is so certain, that I now live in the house with a child, whom his mother has so well instructed this way in geography, that he knew the limits of the four parts of the world, could readily point, being asked, to any country upon the globe, or any county in the map of England; knew all the great rivers, promontories, straits, and bays in the world, and could find the longitude and latitude of any place, before he was six years old. These things, that he will thus learn by sight, and have by rote in his memory, are not all, I confess, that he is to learn upon the globes. But yet it is a good step and preparation to it, and will make the remainder much easier, when his judgment is grown ripe enough for it: besides that, it gets so much time now, and by the pleasure of knowing things, leads him on insensibly to the gaining of languages.

173. When he has the natural parts of the globe well fixed in his memory, it may then be time to begin arithmetic. By the natural parts of the globe, I mean several positions of the parts of the earth and sea, under different names and distinctions of countries; not coming yet to those artificial and imaginary lines, which have been invented, and are only supposed, for the better improvement of that science.

ARITHMETIC.

174. Arithmetic is the easiest, and consequently the first sort of abstract reasoning, which the mind commonly bears, or accustoms itself to; and is of so general use in all parts of life and business, that scarce any thing is to be done without it. This is certain, a man can not have too much of it, nor too perfectly; he should therefore begin to be exercised in counting, as soon, and as far, as he is capable of it; and do something in it every day till he is master of the art of numbers. When he understands addition and subtraction, he may then be advanced farther in geography, and after he is acquainted with the poles, zones, parallel circles, and meridians, be taught longitude and latitude, and by them be made to understand the use of maps, and by the numbers placed on their sides, to know the respective situation of countries, and how to find them out on the terrestrial globe. Which when he can readily do, he may then be entered in the celestial; and there going over all the circles again, with a more particular observation of the ecliptic or zodiac, to fix them all very clearly and distinctly in his mind, he may be taught the figure and position of the several constellations, which may be showed him first upon the globe, and then in the heavens.

ASTRONOMY.

When that is done, and he knows pretty well the constellations of this our hemisphere, it may be time to give him some notions of this our planetary world, and to that purpose it may not be amiss to make him a draught of the Copernican system; and therein explain to him the situation of the planets, their respective distances from the sun, the center of their revolutions. This will prepare him to understand the motion and theory of the planets the most easy and natural way. For, since astronomers no longer doubt of the motion of the planets about the sun, it is fit he should proceed upon that hypothesis, which is not only the simplest and least perplexed for a learner, but also the likeliest to be true in itself. But in this, as in all other parts of instruction, great care must be taken with children, to begin with that which is plain and simple, and to teach them as little as can be at once, and settle that well in their heads, before you proceed to the next, or any thing new in that science. Give them first one simple idea, and see that they take it right, and perfectly comprehend it, before you go any farther; and then add some other simple idea, which lies next in your way to what you aim at; and so proceeding by gentle and insensible steps, children, without confusion and amazement, will have their understandings opened, and their thoughts extended, farther than could have been expected. And when any one has learned any thing himself, there is no such way to fix it in his memory, and to encourage him to go on, as to set him to teach it others.

GEOMETRY.

175. When he has once got such an acquaintance with the globes, as is above mentioned, he may be fit to be tried a little in geometry; wherein I think the six first books of Euclid enough for him to be taught. For I am in some doubt whether more to a man of business be necessary or useful; at least if he have a genius and inclination to it, being entered so far by his tutor, he will be able to go on of himself without a teacher.

The globes, therefore, must be studied, and that diligently, and, I think, may be begun betimes, if the tutor will but be careful to distinguish what the child is capable of knowing, and what not; for which this may be a rule, that perhaps will go a pretty way, (viz.) that children may be taught any thing that falls under their senses, especially their sight, as far as their memories only are exercised: and thus a child very young may learn, which is the equator, which the meridian, &c., which Europe, and which England, upon the globes, as soon almost as he knows the rooms of the house he lives in; if care be taken not to teach him too much at once, nor to set him upon a new part, till that, which he is upon, be perfectly learned and fixed in his memory.

CHRONOLOGY.

176. With geography, chronology ought to go hand in hand; I mean the general part of it, so that he may have in his mind a view of the whole current of time, and the several considerable epochs that are made use of in history. Without these two, history, which is the great mistress of prudence and civil knowledge; and ought to be the proper study of a gentleman or man of business in the world; without geography and chronology, I say, history will be very ill retained, and very little useful; but be only a jumble of matters of fact,

confusedly heaped together without order or instruction. It is by these two that the actions of mankind are ranked into their proper places of times and countries; under which circumstances, they are not only much easier kept in the memory, but, in that natural order, are only capable to afford those observations, which make a man the better and the abler for reading them.

177. When I speak of chronology as a science he should be perfect in, I do not mean the little controversies that are in it. These are endless, and most of them of so little importance to a gentleman, as not to deserve to be inquired into were they capable of an easy decision. And, therefore, all that learned noise and dust of the chronologist is wholly to be avoided. The most useful book I have seen in that part of learning, is a small treatise of Strauchius, which is printed in twelves, under the title of "Breviarium Chronologicum," out of which may be selected all that is necessary to be taught a young gentleman concerning chronology; for all that is in that treatise a learner need not be cumbered with. He has in him the most remarkable or usual epochs reduced all to that of the Julian period, which is the easiest, and plainest, and surest method, that can be made use of in chronology. To this treatise of Strauchius, Helvicus's tables may be added, as a book to be turned to on all occasions.

HISTORY.

178. As nothing teaches, so nothing delights, more than history. The first of these recommends it to the study of grown men; the latter makes me think it the fittest for a young lad, who, as soon as he is instructed in chronology, and acquainted with the several epochs, in use in this part of the world, and can reduce them to the Julian period, should then have some Latin history put into his hand. The choice should be directed by the easiness of the style; for wherever he begins, chronology will keep it from confusion; and the pleasantness of the subject inviting him to read, the language will insensibly be got, without that terrible vexation and uneasiness which children suffer where they are put into books beyond their capacity, such as are the Roman orators and poets, only to learn the Roman language. When he has by reading mastered the easier, such perhaps as Justin, Eutropius, Quintus Curtius, &c., the next degree to these will give him no great trouble: and thus, by a gradual progress from the plainest and easiest historians, he may at last come to read the most difficult and sublime of the Latin authors, such as are Tully, Virgil, and Horace.

ETHICS.

179. The knowledge of virtue, all along from the beginning, in all the instances he is capable of, being taught him, more by practice than rules; and the love of reputation, instead of satisfying his appetite, being made habitual in him; I know not whether he should read any other discourses of morality, but what he finds in the Bible; or have any system of ethics put into his hand, till he can read Tully's Offices, not as a school-boy to learn Latin, but as one that would be informed in the principles and precepts of virtue, for the conduct of his life.

CIVIL LAW.

180. When he has pretty well digested Tully's Offices, and added to it "Puffendorf de Officio Hominis et Civis," it may be seasonable to set him upon "Grotius de Jure Belli et Pacis," or, which perhaps is the better of the two, "Puffen-

dorf de Jure Naturali et Gentium," wherein he will be instructed in the natural rights of men, and the original and foundations of society, and the duties resulting from thence. This general part of civil law and history are studies which a gentleman should not barely touch at, but constantly dwell upon, and never have done with. A virtuous and well-behaved young man, that is well versed in the general part of the civil law, (which concerns not the chicane of private cases, but the affairs and intercourse of civilized nations in general, grounded upon principles of reason,) understands Latin well, and can write a good hand, one may turn loose into the world, with great assurance that he will find employment and esteem everywhere.

ENGLISH LAW.

181. It would be strange to suppose an English gentleman should be ignorant of the law of his country. This, whatever station he is in, is so requisite, that, from a justice of the peace to a minister of state, I know no place he can well fill without it. I do not mean the chicane or wrangling and captious part of the law; a gentleman whose business is to seek the true measures of right and wrong, and not the arts how to avoid doing the one, and secure himself in doing the other, ought to be as far from such a study of the law, as he is concerned diligently to apply himself to that wherein he may be serviceable to his country. And to that purpose I think the right way for a gentleman to study our law, which he does not design for his calling, is to take a view of our English constitution and government, in the ancient books of the common law, and some more modern writers, who out of them have given an account of this government. And having got a true idea of that, then to read our history, and with it join in every king's reign the laws then made. This will give an insight into the reason of our statutes, and show the true ground upon which they came to be made, and what weight they ought to have.

RHETORIC. LOGIC.

182. Rhetoric and logic being the arts that in the ordinary method usually follow immediately after grammar, it may perhaps be wondered that I have said so little of them. The reason is, because of the little advantage young people receive by them; for I have seldom or never observed any one to get the skill of reasoning well, or speaking handsomely, by studying those rules which pretend to teach it; and therefore I would have a young gentleman take a view of them in the shortest systems could be found, without dwelling long on the contemplation and study of those formalities. Right reasoning is founded on something else than the predicaments and predicables, and does not consist in talking in mode and figure itself. But it is besides my present business to enlarge upon this speculation. To come therefore to what we have in hand; if you would have your son reason well, let him read Chillingworth; and if you would have him speak well, let him be conversant in Tully, to give him the true idea of eloquence; and let him read those things that are well writ in English, to perfect his style in the purity of our language.

183. If the use and end of right reasoning be to have right notions, and a right judgment of things; to distinguish betwixt truth and falsehood, right and wrong, and to act accordingly; be sure not to let your son be bred up in the art and formality of disputing, either practicing it himself, or admiring it in

others; unless, instead of an able man, you desire to have him an insignificant wrangler, opiniatre in discourse, and priding himself in contradicting others; or, which is worse, questioning every thing, and thinking there is no such thing as truth to be sought, but only victory, in disputing. There can not be any thing so disingenuous, so misbecoming a gentleman, or any one who pretends to be a rational creature, as not to yield to plain reason, and the conviction of clear arguments. Is there any thing more inconsistent with civil conversation, and the end of all debate, than not to take an answer, though ever so full and satisfactory; but still to go on with the dispute, as long as equivocal sounds can furnish [a "medius terminus"] a term to wrangle with on the one side, or a distinction on the other? Whether pertinent or impertinent, sense or nonsense, agreeing with, or contrary to, what he had said before, it matters not. For this, in short, is the way and perfection of logical disputes, that the opponent never takes any answer, nor the respondent ever yields to any argument. This neither of them must do, whatever becomes of truth or knowledge, unless he will pass for a poor baffled wretch, and lie under the disgrace of not being able to maintain whatever he has once affirmed, which is the great aim and glory in disputing. Truth is to be found and supported by a mature and due consideration of things themselves, and not by artificial terms and ways of arguing: these lead not men so much into the discovery of truth, as into a captious and fallacious use of doubtful words, which is the most useless and most offensive way of talking, and such as least suits a gentleman or a lover of truth of any thing in the world.

There can scarce be a greater defect in a gentleman, than not to express himself well, either in writing or speaking. But yet, I think, I may ask my reader, whether he doth not know a great many, who live upon their estates, and so, with the name, should have the qualities of gentlemen, who can not so much as tell a story as they should, much less speak clearly and persuasively in any business? This I think not to be so much their fault, as the fault of their education; for I must, without partiality, do my countrymen this right, that where they apply themselves, I see none of their neighbors outgo them. They have been taught rhetoric, but yet never taught how to express themselves handsomely with their tongues, or pens, in the language they are always to use; as if the names of the figures, that embellished the discourses of those who understood the art of speaking, were the very art and skill of speaking well. This, as all other things of practice, is to be learned not by a few or a great many rules given, but by exercise and application, according to good rules, or rather patterns, till habits are got, and a facility of doing it well.

STYLE.

Agreeable hereunto, perhaps it might not be amiss to make children, as soon as they are capable of it, often to tell a story of any thing they know; and to correct at first the most remarkable fault they are guilty of, in their way of putting it together. When that fault is cured, then to show them the next, and so on, till, one after another, all, at least the gross ones, are mended. When they can tell tales pretty well, then it may be time to make them write them. The fables of Æsop, the only book almost that I know fit for children, may afford them matter for this exercise of writing English, as well as for reading and translating, to enter them in the Latin tongue. When they are got past

the faults of grammar, and can join in a continued coherent discourse of the several parts of a story, without bald and unhandsome forms of transition (as is usual,) often repeated; he that desires to perfect them yet farther in this, which is the first step to speaking well, and needs no invention, may have recourse to Tully; and by putting in practice those rules, which that master of eloquence gives in his first book "De Inventione," § 20, make them know wherein the skill and graces of a handsome narrative, according to the several subjects and designs of it, lie. Of each of which rules fit examples may be found out, and therein they may be shown how others have practiced them. The ancient classic authors afford plenty of such examples, which they should be made not only to translate, but have set before them as patterns for their daily imitation.

LETTERS.

When they understand how to write English with due connection, propriety, and order, and are pretty well masters of a tolerable narrative style, they may be advanced to writing of letters; wherein they should not be put upon any strains of wit or compliment, but taught to express their own plain easy sense, without any incoherence, confusion, or roughness. And when they are perfect in this, they may, to raise their thoughts, have set before them the example of Voiture's, for the entertainment of their friends at a distance, with letters of compliment, mirth, raillery, or diversion; and Tully's epistles, as the best pattern, whether for business or conversation. The writing of letters has so much to do in all the occurrences of human life, that no gentleman can avoid showing himself in this kind of writing: occasions will daily force him to make this use of his pen, which, besides the consequences, that, in his affairs, his well or ill managing of it often draws after it, always lays him open to a severer examination of his breeding, sense, and abilities, than oral discourses; whose transient faults, dying for the most part with the sound that gives them life, and so not subject to a strict review, more easily escape observation and censure.

ENGLISH.

Had the methods of education been directed to their right end, one would have thought this so necessary a part, could not have been neglected, whilst themes and verses in Latin, of no use at all, were, so constantly every where pressed, to the racking of children's inventions beyond their strength, and hindering their cheerful progress in learning the tongues, by unnatural difficulties. But custom has so ordained it, and who dares disobey? And would it not be very unreasonable to require of a learned country schoolmaster (who has all the tropes and figures in Farnaby's rhetoric at his fingers' ends,) to teach his scholar to express himself handsomely in English, when it appears to be so little his business or thought, that the boy's mother (despised, it is like, as illiterate, for not having read a system of logic and rhetoric,) outdoes him in it?

To write and speak correctly, gives a grace, and gains a favorable attention to what one has to say; and, since it is English that an English gentleman will have constant use of, that is the language he should chiefly cultivate, and wherein most care should be taken to polish and perfect his style. To speak or write better Latin than English, may make a man be talked of; but he would find it more to his purpose to express himself well in his own tongue, that he uses every moment, than to have the vain commendation of others for a very

insignificant quality. This I find universally neglected, and no care taken any where to improve young men in their own language, that they may thoroughly understand and be masters of it. If any one among us have a facility or purity more than ordinary in his mother tongue, it is owing to chance, or his genius, or any thing, rather than to his education, or any care of his teacher. To mind what English his pupil speaks or writes, is below the dignity of one bred up amongst Greek and Latin, though he have but little of them himself. These are the learned languages, fit only for learned men to meddle with and teach; English is the language of the illiterate vulgar; though yet we see the policy of some of our neighbors hath not thought it beneath the public care to promote and reward the improvement of their own language. Polishing and enriching their tongue, is no small business amongst them; it hath colleges and stipends appointed it, and there is raised amongst them a great ambition and emulation of writing correctly; and we see what they are come to by it, and how far they have spread one of the worst languages, possibly in this part of the world, if we look upon it as it was in some few reigns backwards, whatever it be now. The great men amongst the Romans were daily exercising themselves in their own language; and we find yet upon record the names of orators, who taught some of their emperors Latin, though it were their mother tongue.

It is plain the Greeks were yet more nice in theirs; all other speech was barbarous to them but their own, and no foreign language appears to have been studied or valued amongst that learned and acute people; though it be past doubt, that they borrowed their learning and philosophy from abroad.

I am not here speaking against Greek and Latin; I think they ought to be studied; and the Latin, at least, understood well, by every gentleman. But whatever foreign languages a young man meddles with, (and the more he knows, the better,) that which he should critically study, and labor to get a facility, clearness, and elegancy to express himself in, should be his own, and to this purpose he should daily be exercised in it.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

184. Natural philosophy, as a speculative science, I imagine, we have none; and perhaps I may think I have reason to say, we never shall be able to make a science of it. The works of nature are contrived by a wisdom, and operate by ways, too far surpassing our faculties to discover, or capacities to conceive, for us ever to be able to reduce them into a science. Natural philosophy being the knowledge of the principles, properties, and operations of things, as they are in themselves, I imagine there are two parts of it, one comprehending spirits, with their nature and qualities; and the other, bodies. The first of these is usually referred to metaphysics; but under what title soever the consideration of spirits comes, I think it ought to go before the study of matter and body, not as a science that can be methodized into a system, and treated of, upon principles of knowledge; but as an enlargement of our minds towards a truer and fuller comprehension of the intellectual world, to which we are led both by reason and revelation. And since the clearest and largest discoveries we have of other spirits, besides God and our own souls, is imparted to us from heaven by revelation, I think the information, that at least young people should have of them, should be taken from that revelation. To this purpose, I con-

clude, it would be well, if there were made a good history of the Bible for young people to read; wherein if every thing that is fit to be put into it, were laid down in its due order of time, and several things omitted, which are suited only to riper age; that confusion, which is usually produced by promiscuous reading of the Scripture, as it lies now bound up in our Bibles, would be avoided; and also this other good obtained, that by reading of it constantly, there would be instilled into the minds of children a notion and belief of spirits, they having so much to do, in all the transactions of that history, which will be a good preparation to the study of bodies. For, without the notion and allowance of spirit, our philosophy will be lame and defective in one main part of it, when it leaves out the contemplation of the most excellent and powerful part of the creation.

185. Of this history of the Bible, I think too it would be well, if there were a short and plain epitome made, containing the chief and most material heads for children to be conversant in, as soon as they can read. This, though it will lead them early into some notion of spirits, yet is not contrary to what I said above, that I would not have children troubled, whilst young, with notions of spirits; whereby my meaning was, that I think it inconvenient, that their yet tender minds should receive early impressions of goblins, specters, and apparitions, wherewith their maids, and those about them, are apt to fright them into a compliance of their orders, which often proves a great inconvenience to them all their lives after, by subjecting their minds to frights, fearful apprehensions, weakness, and superstition; which, when coming abroad into the world and conversation, they grow weary and ashamed of; it not seldom happens, that to make, as they think, a thorough cure, and ease themselves of a load, which has sat so heavy on them, they throw away the thoughts of all spirits together, and so run into the other, but worse extreme.

186. The reason why I would have this premised to the study of bodies, and the doctrine of the Scriptures well imbibed, before young men be entered in natural philosophy, is, because matter being a thing that all our senses are constantly conversant with, it is so apt to possess the mind, and exclude all other beings, but matter, that prejudice, grounded on such principles, often leaves no room for the admittance of spirits, or the allowing of any such things as immaterial beings "in rerum naturâ;" when yet it is evident, that by mere matter and motion none of the great phenomena of nature can be resolved: to instance but in that common one of gravity, which I think impossible to be explained by any natural operation of matter, or any other law of motion but the positive will of a superior Being so ordering it. And, therefore, since the deluge can not be well explained without admitting something out of the ordinary course of nature, I propose it to be considered whether God's altering the center of gravity in the earth for a time, (a thing as intelligible as gravity itself, which perhaps a little variation of causes, unknown to us, would produce,) will not more easily account for Noah's flood, than any hypothesis yet made use of to solve it. I hear the great objection to this is, that it would produce but a partial deluge. But the alteration of the center of gravity once allowed, it is no hard matter to conceive, that the divine power might make the center of gravity placed at a due distance from the center of the earth, move round it in a convenient space of time; whereby the flood would become universal, and, as I think, answer all the phenomena of the deluge as delivered by Moses, at an easier rate than those many hard suppositions that are made use

of to explain it. But this is not a place for that argument, which is here only mentioned by the by, to show the necessity of having recourse to something beyond bare matter and its motion, in the explication of nature; to which the notions of spirits and their power, as delivered in the Bible, where so much is attributed to their operation, may be a fit preparative, reserving to a fitter opportunity, a fuller explication of this hypothesis, and the application of it to all the parts of the deluge, and any difficulties that can be supposed in the history of the flood, as recorded in the Scripture.

187. But to return to the study of natural philosophy, though the world be full of systems of it, yet I can not say, I know any one which can be taught a young man as a science, wherein he may be sure to find truth and certainty, which is, what all sciences give an expectation of. I do not hence conclude that none of them are to be read: it is necessary for a gentleman in this learned age to look into some of them, to fit himself for conversation. But whether that of Des Cartes be put into his hands, as that which is the most in fashion, or it be thought fit to give him a short view of that and several others also; I think the systems of natural philosophy, that have obtained in this part of the world, are to be read more to know the hypotheses, and to understand the terms and ways of talking of the several sects, than with hopes to gain thereby a comprehensive, scientifical, and satisfactory knowledge of the works of nature: only this may be said, that the modern corpuscularians talk, in most things more intelligibly than the peripatetics, who possessed the schools immediately before them. He that would look farther back, and acquaint himself with the several opinions of the ancients, may consult Dr. Cudworth's Intellectual System; wherein that very learned author hath with such accurateness and judgment collected and explained the opinions of the Greek philosophers, that what principles they built on, and what were the chief hypotheses that divided them, is better to be seen in him than any where else that I know. But I would not deter any one from the study of nature, because all the knowledge we have, or possibly can have of it, can not be brought into a science. There are very many things in it that are convenient and necessary to be known to a gentleman; and a great many other, that will abundantly reward the pains of the curious with delight and advantage. But these I think are rather to be found amongst such writers, as have employed themselves in making rational experiments and observations, than in starting barely speculative systems. Such writings, therefore, as many of Mr. Boyle's are, with others, that have writ of husbandry, planting, gardening. and the like, may be fit for a gentleman, when he has a little acquainted himself with some of the systems of natural philosophy in fashion.

188. Though the systems of physics, that I have met with, afford little encouragement to look for certainty or science in any treatise, which shall pretend to give us a body of natural philosophy from the first principles of bodies in general, yet the incomparable Mr. Newton, has shown how far mathematics, applied to some parts of nature, may, upon principles that matter of fact justify, carry us in the knowledge of some, as I may so call them, particular provinces of the incomprehensible universe. And if others could give us so good and clear an account of other parts of nature, as he has of this our planetary world, and the most considerable phenomena observable in it, in his admirable book, "Philosophiæ naturalis Principia mathematica," we might in time hope to be furnished with more true and certain knowledge in several parts of this stupen-

dious machine, than hitherto we could have expected. And though there are very few that have mathematics enough to understand his demonstrations, yet the most accurate mathematicians, who have examined them, allowing them to be such, his book will deserve to be read, and give no small light and pleasure to those, who, willing to understand the motions, properties, and operations of the great masses of matter, in this our solar system, will but carefully mind his conclusions, which may be depended on as propositions well proved.

GREEK.

189. This is, in short, what I have thought concerning a young gentleman's studies; wherein it will possibly be wondered, that I should omit Greek, since amongst the Grecians is to be found the original, as it were, and foundation of of all that learning, which we have in this part of the world. I grant it so; and will add, that no man can pass for a scholar, that is ignorant of the Greek tongue. But I am not here considering the education of a professed scholar, but of a gentleman, to whom Latin and French, as the world now goes, is by every one acknowledged to be necessary. When he comes to be a man, if he has a mind to carry his studies farther, and look into the Greek learning, he will then easily get that tongue himself: and if he has not that inclination, his learning of it under a tutor, will be but lost labor, and much of his time and pains spent in that which will be neglected and thrown away, as soon as he is at liberty. For how many are there of an hundred, even amongst scholars themselves, who retain the Greek they carried from school; or ever improve it to a familiar reading, and perfect understanding of Greek authors?

To conclude this part, which concerns a young gentleman's studies, his tutor should remember, that his business is not so much to teach him all that is knowable, as to raise in him a love and esteem of knowledge; and to put him in the right way of knowing and improving himself, when he has a mind to it.

The thoughts of a judicious author on the subject of languages, I shall here give the reader, as near as I can, in his own way of expressing them. He says * "One can scarce burden children too much with the knowledge of languages. They are useful to men of all conditions, and they equally open them the entrance, either to the most profound, or the more easy and entertaining parts of learning. If this irksome study be put off to a little more advanced age, young men either have not resolution enough to apply to it out of choice, or steadiness to carry it on. And if any one has the gift of perseverance, it is not without the inconvenience of spending that time upon languages, which is destined to other uses: and he confines to the study of words that age of his life that is above it, and requires things; at least, it is the losing the best and beautifulest season of one's life. This large foundation of languages can not be well laid, but when every thing makes an easy and deep impression on the mind; when the memory is fresh, ready and tenacious; when the head and heart are as yet free from cares, passions, and designs; and those, on whom the child depends, have authority enough to keep him close to a long-continued application. I am persuaded, that the small number of truly learned, and the multitude of superficial pretenders, is owing to the neglect of this."

I think every body will agree with this observing gentleman, that languages are the proper study of our first years. But this is to be considered by the

* La Bruyere Mœurs de ce Siecle, p. 577, 662.

parents and tutors, what tongue it is fit the child should learn. For it must be confessed, that it is fruitless pains, and loss of time, to learn a language, which, in the course of life that he is designed to, he is never like to make use of; or which one may guess by his temper, he will wholly neglect and lose again, as soon as an approach to manhood, setting him free from a governor, shall put him into the hands of his own inclination; which is not likely to allot any of his time to the cultivating the learned tongues; or dispose him to mind any other language, but what daily use, or some particular necessity, shall force upon him.

But yet, for the sake of those who are designed to be scholars, I will add what the same author subjoins, to make good his foregoing remark. It will deserve to be considered by all who desire to be truly learned, and, therefore, may be a fit rule for tutors to inculcate, and leave with their pupils, to guide their future studies:

"The study," says he, "of the original text can never be sufficiently recommended. It is the shortest, surest, and most agreeable way to all sorts of learning. Draw from the spring-head, and take not things at second-hand. Let the writings of the great masters be never laid aside; dwell upon them, settle them in your mind, and cite them upon occasion; make it your business thoroughly to understand them in their full extent, and all their circumstances: acquaint yourself fully with the principles of original authors; bring them to a consistency, and then do you yourself make your deductions. In this state were the first commentators, and do not you rest till you bring yourself to the same. Content not yourself with those borrowed lights, nor guide yourself by their views, but where your own fails you, and leaves you in the dark. Their explications are not yours, and will give you the slip. On the contrary, your own observations are the product of your own mind, where they will abide, and be ready at hand upon all occasions in converse, consultation, and dispute. Lose not the pleasure it is to see that you were not stopped in your reading, but by difficulties that are invincible; where the commentators and scholiasts themselves are at a stand, and have nothing to say; those copious expositors of other places, who, with a vain and pompous overflow of learning, poured out on passages plain and easy in themselves, are very free of their words and pains where there is no need. Convince yourself fully by thus ordering your studies, that it is nothing but men's laziness, which hath encouraged pedantry to cram rather than enrich libraries, and to bury good authors under heaps of notes and commentaries; and you will perceive, that sloth herein hath acted against itself, and its own interest, by multiplying reading and inquiries, and increasing the pains it endeavored to avoid."

This, though it may seem to concern none but direct scholars, is of so great moment for the right ordering of their education and studies, that I hope I shall not be blamed for inserting of it here, especially if it be considered, that it may be of use to gentlemen too, when at any time they have a mind to go deeper than the surface, and get to themselves a solid, satisfactory, and masterly insight in any part of learning.

METHOD.

Order and constancy are said to make the great difference between one man and another: This, I am sure, nothing so much clears a learner's way, helps him so much on in it, and makes him go so easy and so far in any inquiry, as a

good method. His governor should take pains to make him sensible of this, accustom him to order and teach him method in all the applications of his thoughts; show him wherein it lies, and the advantages of it; acquaint him with the several sorts of it, either from general to particulars, or from particulars to what is more general; exercise him in both of them; and make him see, in what case each different method is most proper, and to what ends it best serves.

In history the order of time should govern; in philosophical inquiries that of nature, which in all progression is to go from the place one is then in, to that which joins and lies next to it; and so it is in the mind, from the knowledge it stands possessed of already, to that which lies next, and is coherent to it, and so on to what it aims at, by the simplest and most uncompounded parts it can divide the matter into. To this purpose, it will be of great use to his pupil to accustom him to distinguish well, that is, to have distinct notions, where ever the mind can find any real difference, but as carefully to avoid distinction in terms, where he has not distinct and different clear ideas.

190. Besides what is to be had from study and books, there are other accomplishments necessary for a gentleman, to be got by exercise, and to which time is to be allowed, and for which masters must be had.

DANCING.

Dancing being that which gives graceful motions all the life, and above all things manliness, and a becoming confidence to young children, I think it can not be learned too early, after they are once of an age and strength capable of it. But you must be sure to have a good master, that knows, and can teach, what is graceful and becoming, and what gives a freedom and easiness to all the motions of the body. One that teaches not this, is worse than none at all, natural unfashionableness being much better than apish, affected postures; and I think it much more passable to put off the hat, and make a leg, like an honest country-gentleman, than like an ill-fashioned dancing-master. For, as for the jigging part, and the figures of dances, I count that little, or nothing, farther than as it tends to perfect graceful carriage.

MUSIC.

191. Music is thought to have some affinity with dancing, and a good hand, upon some instruments, is by many people mightily valued. But it wastes so much of a young man's time, to gain but a moderate skill in it, and engages often in such odd company, that many think it much better spared: and I have amongst men of parts and business, so seldom heard any one commended, or esteemed, for having an excellency in music, that amongst all those things, that ever came into the list of accomplishments, I think I may give it the last place. Our short lives will not serve us for the attainment of all things; nor can our minds be always intent on something to be learned. The weakness of our constitutions, both of mind and body, requires, that we should be often unbent: and he that will make a good use of any part of his life, must allow a large portion of it to recreation. At least this must not be denied to young people unless whilst you, with too much haste, make them old, you have the displeasure to set them in their graves, or a second childhood, sooner than you could wish. And therefore I think, that the time and pains allotted to serious improvements, should be employed about things of most use and consequence, and that too in

the methods the most easy and short, that could be at any rate obtained: and, perhaps, as I have above said, it would be none of the least secrets of education, to make the exercises in the body and the mind, the recreation one to another. I doubt not but that something might be done in it, by a prudent man, that would well consider the temper and inclination of his pupil. For he that is wearied either with study or dancing, does not desire presently to go to sleep; but to do something else, which may divert and delight him. But this must be always remembered, that nothing can come into the account of recreation, that is not done with delight.

192. Fencing and riding the great horse, are looked upon as so necessary to parts of breeding, that it would be thought a great omission to neglect them: the latter of the two being for the most part to be learned only in great towns, is one of the best exercises for health, which is to be had in those places of ease and luxury: and upon that account, makes a fit part of a young gentleman's employment during his abode there. And as far as it conduces to give a man a firm and graceful seat on horseback, and to make him able to teach his horse to stop and turn quick, and to rest on his haunches, is of use to a gentleman both in peace and war. But whether it be of moment enough to be made a business of, and deserve to take up more of his time, than should barely for his health be employed at due intervals in some such vigorous exercise, I shall leave to the discretion of parents and tutors, who will do well to remember, in all the parts of education, that most time and application is to be bestowed on that which is like to be of greatest consequence, and frequentest use, in the ordinary course and occurrences of that life the young man is designed for.

FENCING.

193. As for fencing, it seems to me a good exercise for health, but dangerous to the life. The confidence of their skill being apt to engage in quarrels those that think they have learned to use their swords. This presumption makes them often more touchy than needs, on points of honor, and slight or no provocations. Young men in their warm blood are forward to think they have in vain learned to fence, if they never show their skill and courage in a duel: and they seem to have reason. But how many sad tragedies that reason has been the occasion of, the tears of many a mother can witness. A man that can not fence will be more careful to keep out of bullies' and gamesters' company, and will not be half so apt to stand upon punctilios, nor to give affronts, or fiercely justify them when given, which is that which usually makes the quarrel. And when a man is in the field, a moderate skill in fencing rather exposes him to the sword of his enemy, than secures him from it. And certainly a man of courage who can not fence at all, and therefore will put all upon one trust, and not stand parrying, has the odds against a moderate fencer, especially if he has skill in wrestling. And therefore, if any provision be to be made against such accidents, and a man be to prepare his son for duels, I had much rather mine should be a good wrestler than an ordinary fencer; which is the most a gentleman can attain to in it, unless he will be constantly in the fencing-school, and every day exercising. But since fencing and riding the great horse, are so generally looked upon as necessary qualifications in the breeding of a gentleman, it will be hard wholly to deny any one of that rank these marks of distinction. I shall leave it therefore to the father, to consider, how far the temper of his son and the station he is like to be in, will allow, or encourage him to comply with fashions,

which, having very little to do with civil life, were yet formerly unknown to the most warlike nations; and seem to have added little of force or courage to those who have received them, unless we will think martial skill or prowess have been improved by duelling, with which fencing came into, and with which, I presume, it will go out of the world.

194. These are my present thoughts concerning learning and accomplishments. The great business of all is virtue and wisdom.

"Nullum numen abest, si sit prudentia."

Teach him to get a mastery over his inclinations, and submit his appetite to reason. This being obtained, and by constant practice settled into habit, the hardest part of the task is over. To bring a young man to this, I know nothing which so much contributes, as the love of praise and commendation, which should, therefore, be instilled into him by all arts imaginable. Make his mind as sensible of credit and shame as may be: and when you have done that, you have put a principle into him, which will influence his actions, when you are not by; to which the fear of a little smart of a rod is not comparable, and which will be the proper stock, whereon afterwards to graft the true principles of morality and religion.

MANUAL TRADE.

195. I have one thing more to add, which as soon as I mention, I shall run the danger of being suspected to have forgot what I am about, and what I have above written concerning education, all tending towards a gentleman's calling, with which a trade seems wholly to be inconsistent. And yet, I can not forbear to say, I would have him learn a trade, a manual trade; nay, two or three, but one more particularly.

196. The busy inclination of children being always to be directed to something that may be useful to them, the advantages proposed from what they are set about may be considered of two kinds; 1. Where the skill itself, that is got by exercise, is worth the having. Thus skill not only in languages, and learned sciences, but in painting, turning, gardening, tempering, and working in iron, and all other useful arts, is worth the having. 2. Where the exercise itself, without any consideration, is necessary, or useful for health. Knowledge in some things is so necessary to be got by children, whilst they are young, that some part of their time is to be allotted to their improvement in them, though those employments contribute nothing at all to their health: such are reading, and writing, and all other sedentary studies, for the cultivating of the mind, which unavoidably take up a great part of gentlemen's time, quite from their cradles. Other manual arts, which are both got and exercised by labor, do many of them, by that exercise, not only increase our dexterity and skill, but contribute to our health too especially; such as employ us in the open air. In these, then, health and improvement may be joined together, and of these should some fit ones be chosen, to be made the recreations of one, whose chief business is with books and study. In this choice, the age and inclination of the person is to be considered, and constraint always to be avoided in bringing him to it. For command and force may often create, but can never cure an aversion: and, whatever any one is brought to by compulsion, he will leave as soon as he can, and be little profited, and less recreated by, whilst he is at it.

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PAINTING.

197. That which of all others would please me best, would be a painter, were there not an argument or two against it not easy to be answered. First, ill painting is one of the worst things in the world; and to attain a tolerable degree of skill in it, requires too much of a man's time. If he has a natural inclination to it, it will endanger the neglect of all other more useful studies, to give way to that; and if he have no inclination to it, all the time, pains, and money shall be employed in it, will be thrown away to no purpose. Another reason why I am not for painting in a gentleman, is, because it is a sedentary recreation, which more employs the mind than the body. A gentleman's more serious employment, I look on to be study; and when that demands relaxation and refreshment, it should be in some exercise of the body, which unbends the thought, and confirms the health and strength. For these two reasons I am not for painting.

GARDENING. JOINERY.

198. In the next place, for a country gentleman, I should propose one, or rather both these; viz. gardening or husbandry in general, and working in wood, as a carpenter, joiner, or turner; these being fit and healthy recreations for a man of study, or business. For since the mind endures not to be constantly employed in the same thing, or way; and sedentary or studious men should have some exercise, that at the same time might divert their minds, and employ their bodies; I know none that could do it better for a country-gentleman, than these two, the one of them affording him exercise, when the weather or season keeps him from the other. Besides that, by being skilled in the one of them, he will be able to govern and teach his gardener; by the other, contrive and make a great many things both of delight and use: though these I propose not as the chief end of his labor, but as temptations to it; diversion from his other more serious thoughts and employments, by useful and healthy manual exercise, being what I chiefly aim at in it.

199. The great men among the ancients understood very well how to reconcile manual labor with affairs of state, and thought it no lessening to their dignity to make the one the recreation to the other. That indeed which seems most generally to have employed and diverted their spare hours was agriculture. Gideon amongst the Jews was taken from threshing, as well as Cincinnatus amongst the Romans from the plow, to command the armies of their countries against their enemies; and it is plain their dexterous handling of the flail or the plow, and being good workmen with these tools, did not hinder their skill in arms nor make them less able in the arts of war or government. They were great captains and statesmen as well as husbandmen. Cato major, who had with great reputation borne all the great offices of the commonwealth, has left an evidence under his own hand how much he was versed in country affairs; and, as I remember, Cyrus thought gardening so little beneath the dignity and grandeur of a throne, that he showed Xenophon a large field of fruit-trees, all of his own planting. The records of antiquity, both amongst Jews and Gentiles, are full of instances of this kind, if it were necessary to recommend useful recreations by examples.

RECREATION.

200. Nor let it be thought that I mistake, when I call these or the like exercises of manual arts, diversions or recreations; for recreation is not being idle,

(as every one may observe,) but easing the wearied part by change of business: and he that thinks diversion may not lie in hard and painful labor, forgets the early rising, hard riding, heat, cold and hunger of huntsmen, which is yet known to be the constant recreation of men of the greatest condition. Delving, planting, inoculating, or any the like profitable employments, would be no less a diversion, than any of the idle sports in fashion, if men could but be brought to delight in them, which custom and skill in a trade will quickly bring any one to do. And I doubt not, but there are to be found those, who, being frequently called to cards, or any other play, by those they could not refuse, have been more tired with these recreations, than with any of the most serious employment of life; though the play has been such as they have naturally had no aversion to, and with which they could willingly sometimes divert themselves.

201. Play, wherein persons of condition, especially ladies, waste so much of their time, is a plain instance to me, that men can not be perfectly idle; they must be doing something. For how else could they sit so many hours toiling at that, which generally gives more vexation than delight to people, whilst they are actually engaged in it? It is certain, gaming leaves no satisfaction behind it to those who reflect when it is over, and it no way profits either body or mind: as to their estates, if it strike so deep as to concern them, it is a trade then, and not a recreation, wherein few, that have any thing else to live on, thrive: and at best, a thriving gamester has but a poor trade on it, who fills his pocket at the price of his reputation.

Recreation belongs not to people, who are strangers to business, and are not wasted and wearied with the employment of their calling. The skill should be, so to order their time of recreation, that it may relax and refresh the part that has been exercised, and is tired; and yet do something, which, besides the present delight and ease, may produce what will afterwards be profitable. It has been nothing but the vanity and pride of greatness and riches, that has brought unprofitable and dangerous pastimes (as they are called,) into fashion, and persuaded people into a belief, that the learning or putting their hands to any thing that was useful, could not be a diversion fit for a gentleman. This has been that, which has given cards, dice, and drinking, so much credit in the world: and a great many throw away their spare hours in them, through the prevalency of custom, and want of some better employment to fill up the vacancy of leisure, more than from any real delight is to be found in them. They can not bear the dead weight of unemployed time lying upon their hands, nor the uneasiness it is to do nothing at all: and having never learned any laudable manual art wherewith to divert themselves, they have recourse to those foolish, or ill ways in use, to help off their time, which a rational man, till corrupted by custom, could find very little pleasure in.

TRADE.

202. I say not this, that I would never have a young gentleman accommodate himself to the innocent diversions in fashion, amongst those of his age and condition. I am so far from having him austere and morose to that degree, that I would persuade him to more than ordinary complaisance for all the gaieties and diversions of those he converses with, and be averse or testy in nothing, they should desire of him, that might become a gentleman and an honest man; though as to cards and dice, I think the safest and best way is never to learn any play upon them, and so to be incapacitated for those dangerous temptations, and

encroaching wasters of useful time. But allowance being made for idle and jovial conversation, and all fashionable becoming recreations; I say, a young man will have time enough, from his serious and main business, to learn almost any trade. It is want of application, and not of leisure, that men are not skillful in more arts than one; and an hour in a day, constantly employed in such a way of diversion, will carry a man, in a short time, a great deal farther than he can imagine: which, if it were of no other use but to drive the common, vicious, useless, and dangerous pastimes out of fashion, and to show there was no need of them, would deserve to be encouraged. If men from their youth were weaned from that sauntering humor, wherein some, out of custom, let a good part of their lives run uselessly away, without either business or recreation, they would find time enough to acquire dexterity and skill in hundreds of things, which though remote from their proper callings, would not at all interfere with them. And therefore, I think, for this, as well as other reasons before-mentioned, a lazy, listless humor, that idly dreams away the days, is of all others the least to be indulged, or permitted in young people. It is the proper state of one sick, and out of order in his health, and is tolerable in nobody else, of what age or condition soever.

203. To the arts above-mentioned, may be added perfuming, varnishing, graving, and several sorts of working in iron, brass and silver: and if, as it happens to most young gentlemen, that a considerable part of his time be spent in a great town, he may learn to cut, polish and set precious stones, or employ himself in grinding and polishing optical glasses. Amongst the great variety there is of ingenious manual arts, it will be impossible that no one should be found to please and delight him, unless he be either idle or debauched, which is not to be supposed in a right way of education. And since it can not be always employed in study, reading, and conversation, there will be many an hour, besides what his exercises will take up, which, if not spent this way, will be spent worse. For, I conclude, a young man will seldom desire to sit perfectly still and idle; or if he does, it is a fault that ought to be mended.

204. But if his mistaken parents, frightened with the disgraceful names of mechanic and trade, shall have an aversion to any thing of this kind in their children; yet there is one thing relating to trade, which when they consider, they will think absolutely necessary for their sons to learn.

MERCHANTS' ACCOUNTS.

Merchants' accounts, though a science not likely to help a gentleman to get an estate, yet possibly there is not any thing of more use and efficacy to make him preserve the estate he has. It is seldom observed, that he who keeps an account of his income and expenses, and thereby has constantly under view the course of his domestic affairs, lets them run to ruin; and I doubt not but many a man gets behind-hand before he is aware, or runs further on, when he is once in, for want of this care, or the skill to do it. I would therefore advise all gentlemen to learn perfectly merchants' accounts, and not to think it is a skill that belongs not to them, because it has received its name from, and has been chiefly practiced by men of traffic.

205. When my young master has once got the skill of keeping accounts, (which is a business of reason more than arithmetic,) perhaps it will not be amiss, that his father from thenceforth require him to do it in all his concern-

ments. Not that I would have him set down every pint of wine, or play, that costs him money; the general name of expenses will serve for such things well enough: nor would I have his father look so narrowly into these accounts, as to take occasion from thence to criticise on his expenses. He must remember, that he himself was once a young man, and not forget the thoughts he had then, nor the right his son has to have the same, and to have allowance made for them. If, therefore, I would have the young gentleman obliged to keep an account, it is not at all to have that way a check upon his expenses, (for what the father allows him, he ought to let him be fully master of,) but only, that he might be brought early into the custom of doing it, and that it might be made familiar and habitual to him betimes, which will be so useful and necessary to be constantly practiced through the whole course of his life. A noble Venetian, whose son wallowed in the plenty of his father's riches, finding his son's expenses grow very high and extravagant, ordered his cashier to let him have, for the future, no more money than what he should count when he received it. This one would think no great restraint to a young gentleman's expenses, who could freely have as much money as he would tell. But yet this, to one, who was used to nothing but the pursuit of his pleasures, proved a very great trouble, which at last ended in this sober and advantageous reflection: "If it be so much pains to me, barely to count the money I would spend, what labor and pains did it cost my ancestors, not only to count, but get it?" This rational thought, suggested by this little pains imposed upon him, wrought so effectually upon his mind, that it made him take up, and from that time forwards prove a good husband. This, at least, every body must allow, that nothing is likelier to keep a man within compass, than the having constantly before his eyes the state of his affairs, in a regular course of account.

TRAVEL.

206. The last part usually in education, is travel, which is commonly thought to finish the work, and complete the gentleman. I confess, travel into foreign countries has great advantages; but the time usually chosen to send young men abroad, is, I think, of all other, that which renders them least capable of reaping those advantages. Those which are proposed, as to the main of them, may be reduced to these two: first, language; secondly, an improvement in wisdom and prudence, by seeing men, and conversing with people of tempers, customs, and ways of living, different from one another, and especially from those of his parish and neighborhood. But from sixteen to one-and-twenty, which is the ordinary time of travel, men are, of all their lives, the least suited to these improvements. The first season to get foreign languages, and form the tongue to their true accents, I should think, should be from seven to fourteen or sixteen; and then, too, a tutor with them is useful and necessary, who may with those languages, teach them other things. But to put them out of their parents' view, at a great distance, under a governor, when they think themselves too much men to be governed by others, and yet have not prudence and experience enough to govern themselves; what is it but to expose them to all the greatest dangers of their whole life, when they have the least fence and guard against them? Till that boiling boisterous part of life comes on, it may be hoped the tutor may have some authority; neither the stubbornness of age, nor the temptation or examples of others can take him from his tutor's conduct, till fifteen or sixteen; but then, when he begins to consort himself with men, and thinks

himself one; when he comes to relish, and pride himself in, manly vices, and thinks it a shame to be any longer under the control and conduct of another; what can be hoped from even the most careful and discreet governor, when neither he has power to compel, nor his pupil a disposition to be persuaded; but, on the contrary, has the advice of warm blood, and prevailing fashion, to hearken to the temptations of his companions, just as wise as himself, rather than to the persuasions of his tutor, who is now looked on as the enemy of his freedom? And when is a man so like to miscarry, as when at the same time he is both raw and unruly? This is the season of all his life, that most requires the eye and authority of his parents and friends to govern it. The flexibleness of the former part of a man's age, not yet grown up to be headstrong, makes it more governable and safe; and, in the after-part, reason and foresight begin a little to take place, and mind a man of his safety and improvement. The time therefore I should think the fittest for a young gentleman to be sent abroad, would be, either when he is younger, under a tutor, whom he might be the better for; or when he is some years older, without a governor; when he is of age to govern himself, and make observations of what he finds in other countries worthy his notice, and that might be of use to him after his return: and when, too, being thoroughly acquainted with the laws and fashions, the natural and moral advantages and defects of his own country, he has something to exchange with those abroad, from whose conversation he hoped to reap any knowledge.

207. The ordering of travel otherwise, is that, I imagine, which makes so many young gentlemen come back so little improved by it. And if they do bring home with them any knowledge of the places and people they have seen, it is often an admiration of the worst and vainest practices they met with abroad; retaining a relish and memory of those things, wherein their liberty took its first swing, rather than of what should make them better and wiser after their return. And indeed, how can it be otherwise, going abroad at the age they do, under the care of another, who is to provide their necessaries, and make their observations for them? Thus, under the shelter and pretense of a governor, thinking themselves excused from standing upon their own legs, or being accountable for their own conduct, they very seldom trouble themselves with inquiries, or making useful observations of their own. Their thoughts run after play and pleasure, wherein they take it as a lessening to be controlled; but seldom trouble themselves to examine the designs, observe the address, and consider the arts, tempers and inclinations of men they meet with; that so that they may know how to comport themselves towards them. Here he that travels with them, is to screen them, get them out, when they have run themselves into the briars; and in all their miscarriages be answerable for them.

208. I confess, the knowledge of men is so great a skill, that it is not to be expected a young man should presently be perfect in it. But yet his going abroad is to little purpose, if travel does not sometimes open his eyes, make him cautious and wary, and accustom him to look beyond the outside, and, under the inoffensive guard of a civil and obliging carriage, keep himself free and safe in his conversation with strangers, and all sorts of people, without forfeiting their good opinion. He that is sent out to travel at the age, and with the thoughts of a man designing to improve himself, may get into the conversation and acquaintance of persons of condition where he comes; which, though a thing of most advantage to a gentleman that travels, yet I ask, among our young men that go abroad under tutors, what one is there of an hundred, that

ever visits any person of quality? much less makes an acquaintance with such, from whose conversation he may learn what is good breeding in that country, and what is worth observation in it; though from such persons it is, one may learn more in one day, than in a year's rambling from one inn to another. Nor indeed is it to be wondered; for men of worth and parts will not easily admit the familiarity of boys, who yet need the care of a tutor: though a young gentleman and stranger, appearing like a man, and showing a desire to inform himself in the customs, manners, laws, and government of the country he is in, will find welcome assistance and entertainment amongst the best and most knowing persons every where, who will be ready to receive, encourage, and countenance any ingenious and inquisitive foreigner.

209. This, how true soever it be, will not, I fear, alter the custom which has cast the time of travel upon the worst part of a man's life; but for reasons not taken from their improvement. The young lad must not be ventured abroad at eight or ten, for fear of what may happen to the tender child, though he then runs ten times less risk than at sixteen or eighteen. Nor must he stay at home till that dangerous heady age be over, because he must be back again by one-and-twenty, to marry and propagate. The father can not stay any longer for the portion, nor the mother for a new set of babies to play with; and so my young master, whatever comes on it, must have a wife looked out for him, by that time he is of age; though it would be no prejudice to his strength, his parts, or his issue, if it were respited for some time, and he had leave to get, in years and knowledge, the start a little of his children, who are often found to tread too near upon the heels of their fathers, to the no great satisfaction either of son or father. But the young gentleman being got within view of matrimony, it is time to leave him to his mistress.

CONCLUSION.

210. Though I have now come to a conclusion of what obvious remarks have suggested to me concerning education, I would not have it thought that I look on it as a just treatise on this subject. There are a thousand other things that may need consideration; especially if one should take in the various tempers, different inclinations, and particular defaults, that are to be found in children; and prescribe proper remedies. The variety is so great, that it would require a volume; nor would that reach it. Each man's mind has some peculiarity, as well as his face, that distinguishes him from all others; and there are possibly scarce two children, who can be conducted by exactly the same method. Besides that, I think a prince, a nobleman, and an ordinary gentleman's son, should have different ways of breeding. But having had here only some general views in reference to the main end and aims in education, and those designed for a gentleman's son, whom being then very little, I considered only as white paper, or wax, to be molded and fashioned as one pleases; I have touched little more than those heads, which I judged necessary for the breeding of a young gentleman of his condition in general; and have now published these my occasional thoughts, with this hope, that, though this be far from being a complete treatise on this subject, or such as that every one may find what will just fit his child in it; yet it may give some small light to those, whose concern for their dear little ones makes them so irregularly bold, that they dare venture to consult their own reason in the education of their children, rather than wholly to rely upon old custom.

IX. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN SOCIETY AND IN THE SCHOOL.

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THE studio of the celebrated painter Apelles, was, on one occasion, invaded by a stranger of very imposing presence. As he moved about, resplendent in gold and gems, his majestic bearing rendered still more impressive by his mysterious silence, the eyes of every one in the room, from the great master down to the youngest pupil, followed him with an admiration bordering upon awe. At last the princely stranger condescended to speak—and thereupon received from Apelles this rude reproof: "Whilst thou wast silent, thy solemn state, thy gold and purple ornaments, seemed to betoken thee something great; but now that thou hast spoken, the meanest boy in my shop can not choose but despise thee."

Is not something of this sort taking place within our own experience almost every day? How often the first words spoken by a stranger dispel the favorable impression produced by his appearance, and substitute an unconquerable aversion or contempt! How often is a man, whose dignity of manner, and oracular brow seemed to bespeak the sage and the philosopher, precipitated in our estimation to the rank of a jockey by the very first word he utters! How often, alas, is the beauty which had begun to captivate us, instantly transmuted before our eyes into ugliness by the charm-dissolving potency of a single ill-bred remark, in a coarse voice—that *execrable* "thing in woman!"

On the other hand, it may have been our lot to meet, perhaps in some crowded thoroughfare, a man of quite insignificant personal appearance, whom, if we had noticed him at all, we should have unhesitatingly pronounced a nobody, but whose half-a-dozen familiar words caught as we brushed past him, prompted us to turn about and see what manner of man he was, who had so impressed us with the idea of culture, geniality, and taste. A person rises to address an assembly, a complete stranger to us. We scan his face and person as he rises, and we are disposed to pronounce them rather common-place, far from promising if we are hoping for a treat; and our

interest, having put out its feelers and found nothing to cling to, returns into our bosoms. But he begins to speak: in a few well-chosen words, very simple, very natural, neatly arranged, and uttered in a clear voice, he introduces his subject. In five minutes, with no pretensions to what is called eloquence, with no artifice or magic save a graceful use of our common speech, he has charmed every ear in the assembly. Look about you, and you see that every eye is fixed upon him as by a kind of spell. Take another view of the man himself, and that which before seemed common-place, has been strangely lighted up with a brilliancy which seems to your altered vision to be the unmistakable hue of genius. The whole man seems to have had thrown over him an air of refinement which softens every feature into comeliness and grace. What does it mean? He really has not said any thing very remarkable. If you should attempt to tell a friend what you had heard, you would find yourself repeating quite familiar truths. The fact is, you have been fascinated by means of a kind of charm which he and *a very few others* possess, and which they keep to themselves as a potent secret—the charm of pure English sounds, in pure English words, in pure English idiom.

It may be said, safely, and without fear of exaggerating, that in the process of making up our estimate of a stranger's character, we are more influenced by his language than by any other physical—or semi-physical characteristic. It is not easy—nor indeed possible—to analyze the complex impression, and refer each element to its proper source, yet we may say, in general, that we take our estimate of moral qualities more from tones, and of intellectual characteristics more from one's articulation, his use of words, and his management of sentences. Brute animals, children, and philosophers, have all the same instinctive perception of kindness in a soft, flexible tone, of decision in a firm one, and of moroseness in a harsh one, quite independently of any thing that may be said. But in that measurement of a man's *intellectual* stature which we all make, consciously or unconsciously, when we first encounter him, nothing so summarily settles the question of his culture as the style of his language. An uncultivated man's speech bewrayeth him instantly, and in spite of himself. A single sentence will often divulge, to a practiced observer, the secret of an ignorant man's entire mental history. Hence the sarcastic observation of Solomon: "Even the fool, when he holdeth his peace, is counted wise." "To how many blockheads of my time," says Montaigne, "has a cold and taciturn demeanor procured the reputation of prudence and capacity." If that magnifi-

cent fool, whose face and bearing so affected Coleridge, could have held his tongue instead of blurting out his cockney welcome when those unlucky dumplings came in, he might have gone down to posterity apotheosized in some splendid passage of the Biographia Literaria.

Nor is this criterion of judgment respecting a man's culture an unfair one. No other physical act is so direct and complete a revelation of the acts and states of the soul, as speech. Not only does language in general take its laws from the necessary processes of the human mind, so that the study of logic and grammar is a study of the universal laws of mind, but each man's language is the external index of the secret processes of his individual mind, so that the study of the *special* logic and grammar involved in his language, would reveal the constitution, the history, the present character of *his* mind. It is fair, therefore, to demand that culture of mind should vindicate its presence by an utterance which shall be its appropriate counterpart: that clearness of conception should reveal itself by clearness of enunciation: that a nice and discriminating judgment should be manifested by a due appreciation and choice of words; and that a just sense of relations should exhibit itself in a skilful grouping of words into sentences, and of sentences into the larger divisions of discourse. It is not meant that, as a matter of fact, these two, the inward power and its outward expression, are always kept in exact parallelism. By special cultivation of the one and neglect of the other, the natural balance between them may be destroyed. One man attains a culture of mind which fails of half its complete value even to himself, and is almost worthless to others, because power and grace of expression have not been cultivated to a corresponding degree. Another man bestows his principal attention upon the form and dress of thought, and thus becomes a mere haberdasher, a displayer of intellectual laces and ribbons, neglecting to provide a solid body of thought to support these otherwise paltry ornaments. Still the inference from the character of the language back to that of the thought, is an instinctive one, and most people will give to the man who speaks clearly, fluently, and with force—and to him only—the credit of possessing that inward grace and culture of spirit which would naturally find expression in clear, fluent, and forcible speech. They would sometimes be mistaken. The man of slowest and most unimpressive speech is often the man of most ideas. But this is not as it should be. In such cases the law of relation between substance and form, between thought and expression, is violated to the detriment and to the reproach of the

individual supposed. And those who infer from the lack of clear and choice expression, the lack of that which should be so expressed, can not be blamed. The laws of mind are all on their side, and the man of ideas should be the last to complain.

But we may go a step farther, and say that of all the means by which we can conciliate and interest and influence men, a masterly command of the common language of life, is, next to personal character, the most effective. Who has not seen a man of moderate ability, and of shallow attainments, exerting ten times a greater influence through his dexterous use of words, than the man of ten times his real ability who is slow of speech, and unskilled in those magic arts by which words are made welcome, and animating, and persuasive? There is a charm to which few ears are insensible, in elegant and harmonious language, and he who has possessed himself of this charm, may always command a certain measure of success, whatever may be his deficiencies in other respects. No man exerted a greater influence upon his nation and time, than the German poet, Goethe. His popularity he himself attributed to his power of using the common German language—an estimate of his merits which no one else would for a moment accept as adequate, but still not without some basis of truth. It is much more certain that Montaigne and Rousseau, among the French; Addison, and Southey, Hume, and Dugald Stewart, among British writers, have owed more of their influence with the great body of their readers, to their writing in easy, graceful, and idiomatic French and English, than to any thing inherent in their matter. It may fairly be questioned whether any one of these writers, or of many others that might be named, could have won their way to prominence, if they had not conciliated their readers by the graces of language. Take away from Jeremy Taylor, that wonderful vocabulary into which he has gathered all the beauty and fragrance of the language, and you still leave him his wealth of conception unrivalled. Take an essay of Bacon, and reduce the golden ore of each solid sentence to the standard of our ordinary wares, and there is still wisdom enough to make a dozen men famous. But take away a musical cadence from a sentence of Addison, or a sonorous flourish from a paragraph of Blair, and you have taken almost every thing. There may be a man, now and then, capable of compelling us to listen to what he has to say, though in his mode of saying it there is nothing attractive. There are men of such weight of character that we learn not to mind their lack of those qualities by which ordinary men must influence their fellows. But in the case of all common men, no

combination of talents will supply the want of that one by which all the others are made effective: and no single attainment will be the source of so much actually available influence among men, as the ability to wield at will the power that is latent in our imperial English speech.

Considering, then, the preëminent value of a thorough acquaintance with our own tongue; considering that this is the standard by which men universally and instinctively estimate each others' education; considering that whether in public or private life, in the drawing-room, the senate, the pulpit, the court-room, the popular assembly, wherever man speaks to man by the voice or by the pen, this is the one accomplishment which charms, and influences, and *succeeds* more than all the rest; is any thing like a due importance attached by public sentiment to its attainment?—is any thing like an adequate prominence demanded for those studies in the schools which promote it?

It is not intended to be asserted that this one object is so important that all other studies ought to be neglected for it, or that all other studies ought to be made subordinate to it. Nor on the other hand, is it pretended that this subject receives no attention in the schools. It is only claimed that the study of our own tongue has an importance which is far from being practically appreciated. But the fault of this neglect does not rest mainly upon the schools. The charge of underrating the importance of a good use of language rests heavily upon American society, especially upon educated men in all ranks and professions. The standard of English as spoken in the ordinary intercourse of life, is not so high as to require a thorough course of English studies in the school, as something essential to respectability in society. We do not, with sufficient emphasis, demand of one who claims to be an educated man, that he know how to speak English well, and that he do actually and habitually speak as well as he knows how.

It is a well attested fact—"pity 'tis, 'tis true"—that in no civilized nation is the mother tongue spoken so carelessly and ineffectively by the educated classes, as in this country. The remark is frequently made by American travellers in England, that the English language is better spoken here, than there. It is better spoken by the uneducated classes in this country than by the corresponding classes in England. The most odious slang of the Yankee backwoodsman, the jargon of Mississippi boatmen, the semi-Ethiopian dialect of the Gulf-states, is very much nearer the *English* language than any of the score of barbarous *patois* spoken by the uneducated

in different parts of Great Britain. But we have no class among us whose standard of English is equal to that of the cultivated men and women of all ranks composing the most refined society in England. This distinction is not claimed for the aristocracy as a class, nor for any very extensive body of men, but for the few, who, gathered out of all ranks, professions, and localities, constitute the nobility of mental and social refinement—including, university men; half, perhaps, of the clergymen and lawyers, and a fourth of the doctors and military officers; members of Parliament, yet with numerous exceptions; the old families, noble or gentle, in which culture and taste have, for many generations, had a genial home. In the circles where these congregate, you will unquestionably hear the English language spoken as you will not elsewhere, with that sweet and homely simplicity combined with that genuine heart-born vigor, which are its most admirable virtues. It would not be impossible to select a few Americans who could bear their part in the most fastidious assembly and not suffer by the comparison, but most of us would find ourselves mortified and ill at ease.

In France, to speak French purely and elegantly, is demanded of every one who makes claim to any position in polite society. The different classes vie with each other in their modes of speech. The *noblesse* affect to be distinguished by their language from the *bourgeoisie*, and of course exact it with great rigor of all who claim to be of them, that they have the genuine *ton*. The *bourgeois* naturally cultivate this *ton* all the more assiduously, because it is set up as a standard of gentility. Even the rabble of Paris, who can scarcely read or write, are ambitious to maintain a degree of rank by speaking a pure French unadulterated by the *patois* of the provinces. A barber or pavier in Paris, is better qualified to teach a foreigner good French by his example in conversation, than are a very great number of our professional men to teach a foreigner good English. The educated classes in Germany and Italy, take great pride in speaking their respective tongues well. In some of the provinces of Germany where a corrupt dialect prevails among the peasantry, the higher classes also use this dialect in their intercourse with the peasants, but are careful to speak pure German among themselves. In all the countries of Europe, the laws of good breeding require of an educated man and a gentleman, and of course of a lady, that they speak their own tongue with ease and purity.

Will any one have the hardihood to assert that any thing like a corresponding attention to language prevails among the educated

and professional men of this country? In our courts of justice, in our halls of legislation, even in our gatherings for literary and scientific purposes, will any one claim that the prevalent style of English is creditable to these bodies? How many of our court-rooms are there into which one would think of introducing a foreigner for the purpose of learning the English language, as Americans in Paris are advised to attend the French courts, for the purpose of learning French? Let us do the lawyers justice. But a small number compared with the whole body are liberally educated men, and so, liable to our censure. Then again, the relation of an advocate to witnesses and juries, is such, as to induce him many times to adopt their style of language. No one supposes that chaffering with witnesses would be likely to elevate one's mode of speaking, and though the advocate always assures the jurors that he considers them "enlightened and intelligent" men, yet perhaps he can not always afford to do them the honor of assuming that they understand good English. As for our deliberative bodies, they are so largely composed—as indeed they ought to be—of plain, active, business men, and—as they ought not to be—of ignorant politicians, that we can not expect the average speech of these bodies to be above the average of common life. If an exception can be claimed in favor of any of the professions, it must be for the clerical. And indeed it would be impossible to compute the indebtedness of our public to their educated ministry for their example and influence in favor of correct speaking. In many of our smaller and remoter communities, the minister's example is almost the only one that keeps the sound of any thing like correct English in the popular ear.

If the professional and educated men are thus lax and reprehensible in their use of language, it is not to be wondered at that the speech of ordinary men and women throughout the community should be no better than it is. And truly a nondescript kind of talk it is that is current in ordinary conversation. Take a specimen from a shabby-genteel drawing-room; one from the side-walk; one from the junto of the country store; one from the meeting-house steps; one from the saloon of a fashionable hotel, and another from the bar-room of a village tavern; one from a town-meeting in a down-east village, and another from a caucus in Albany or Washington, and bring them together in a philological cabinet, and see what you have got. You have, first, a very large percentage of slang phrases—nearly the same proportion in all your specimens, for it is wonderful to see what a relish there is among almost all classes

for this style of expression. How they will applaud a lecturer if he happens to achieve a hitherto unheard vulgarism! You may even collect some choice specimens of monstrosities in this kind from the deposits of certain pulpits—specimens which were greeted with cheers at the time of their achievment by highly appreciative audiences, and which have been handed about among esoteric admirers ever since. Next you will have plentiful instances of extravagant, strained, hypersuperlative expressions, indicating the inability of the speakers to say what they would in definite, intelligible terms. You will find a large number of pretentious phrases, particularly foreign ones, dragged in to dignify this motley assemblage, many of which, however, you will find it difficult to recognize in their uncouth sounds and their ludicrous misapplications. Add to these results of your analysis, the flagrant breaches of the common concords, the red-republican disdain of the authority long usurped by the governing classes in English syntax, the stingy and shabby process of abbreviating carried out as persistently as if every syllable cost something, and you have—not a caricature but a fair characterization of much of the current speech.*

But enough for the fact that we are, as a people, lamentably at fault in our language. Enough to show that while no one rank or profession or locality is alone chargeable with this fault, the greatest blame rests upon the educated classes. It is manifest, too, that with them rests mainly the responsibility of instituting a reform which shall in time pervade all classes. It will not do to say that this responsibility rests rather with the schools, because good language is far more a matter of usage and habit, than of technical knowledge. The style of language which the child hears used by the grown-up people with whom he associates, that will infallibly be *his* standard of language, whether his knowledge of grammar be little or much. Something the schools may do toward forming right habits of speaking—and we shall attempt to show presently what that is—but let it be understood that, as a general rule, the only way to secure excellence in the use of language to an individual, is to elevate the standard of the whole circle in which he moves. See, therefore, in this as in a thousand other respects, the inestimable value of a cultivated home, in which all the virtues, of head and of heart, may find a soil congenial to them, and outside of which many of them can hardly be made to grow at all, and others only at an infinite disadvantage. See the importance of surrounding our

* Probably the best specimens of colloquial language would be found in quiet family conversations at the table and fireside, where speech is at the same time least studied and least reckless—least subject to the opposite perverting influences of the drawing-room and the fish-market

children with persons of culture and refinement, from whose lips they may hear what we would wish to have them admire. See how desirable it is that their teachers, whom we instruct them to respect, and whom if they do respect, they certainly will imitate—especially their Sabbath teacher, whom we would have them look up to with some degree of reverence—should speak in a style fit to be their model. See how important it is, that every one of us claiming to be regarded an educated man or woman, should be choice and circumspect in our own language, lest we give our sanction to a style of speaking, which, so far as our influence goes, will depreciate the general standard of English in our community.

One principal design of this discussion would have been accomplished, if we were to stop at this point:—if, having called attention to the great importance and value of a skilful use of our mother tongue, and to the serious and wide-spread delinquencies even of those among us who should best appreciate and exemplify the value of such an accomplishment, we should impose the whole responsibility of the reform so much needed upon the educated classes in society. But still, although the schools can accomplish very little alone, or so long as their instructions are counteracted by the perverse usages of what passes for good society, they furnish a favorable point for beginning the formation of those right habits of speaking upon which so much depends:—and that for several reasons: first, because teachers can be more easily awakened to a sense of the value of these good habits than any other persons: secondly, because the necessary instruction to be connected therewith is immediately within their acknowledged line of duty: and thirdly, because those who are still at school are the persons in whom most improvement may be hoped for.

In order, therefore, to set forth as clearly as may be the work devolving upon the schools in this regard, let us attempt (I.) to state distinctly, what are the constituent elements of a good use of language, and then we shall be able more satisfactorily to inquire, (II.) what are the best means within the reach of the schools for securing proficiency in these several particulars.

I. THE ELEMENTS OF A GOOD USE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

1. *Good English Tones.*—It is a question that lies within the province of the physiologist and the social moralist, as well as that of the educationist, why it is that our American tones are so much flatter and thinner than those of Europeans: and the investigation would furnish some curious and interesting results. Two or three of these, it would be easy to anticipate: as, for instance, that the

common, off-hand way of accounting for difference in the fulness of vocals by mere difference in size or strength of lungs, is wholly inadequate, and unsustained by facts. The volume of a tone, and the fulness of a tone, are very different things. To use a mathematical illustration, the one is a question of dimension without regard to figure; the other a question of figure alone, whether the tone is a fully rounded sphere, or something varying from an ellipsoid down to a sharp, drawling straight line. A good tone so far as fulness is concerned, comes as often from a feeble as from a powerful chest, and many a flat one proceeds from the chest of a prize-fighter. Again, the degree of fulness or flatness of a person's tones, is not a bad gauge, in a general way, of his early education. Go into a strange village, and you may not only tell the general spirit of culture that prevails in the village by an average gauge of the vocals, but you may in most cases pretty safely infer the character of each individual's culture from the character of his tones. Converse with some of the old men; if their conversation is that of intelligent men, but is angular and twangy, you may be sure that they have risen from a station in which early home culture was not their privilege, and that their intelligence is of late acquisition. We all have noticed, further, how contagious this bad vocalization is, especially among children: how inevitably all the children drawl and whine if the parents do: and how quickly children who have been otherwise trained, fall into it when they go to a school where it is the prevailing habit. Many men know also from a disagreeable experience, how difficult it is, how well-nigh impossible, even with the utmost pains, to correct one's tones after having reached a certain age. It is said of Daniel Webster, that to the day of his death, he never fully got rid of his somewhat disagreeable New Hampshire twang.

A good *English* tone should be (*a*,) clear and full, free from huskiness, nasality, squeaking, or drawling: free from that tenuity which characterizes the vocals of the Down-Easter, and from that affected rotundity which marks the Bowery-boy. A good English tone should also be (*b*,) correct in quality, that is, attuned to the normal sound. There is a normal sound for each of the tonic elements, as exact as the true pitch of each note in the scale, and as difficult for an unpracticed performer to hit. Most of the vowel sounds usually heard fall on one side or the other of this standard. The proper sound of the long English *u*, for instance, as in *lute*, is very rarely heard, most attempts at it varying either toward the sound of *oo*, or that of the French *u*. The same may be said of the sound of *ou*, and of short *o*, as heard for instance in *God*. How few can pro-

nounce the sacred name so as to satisfy at once our ear and our reverence, so that the sound shall partake neither of cant nor of profanity! To be sure, there is some dispute among the best orthoëpists on some of these nice points, but all their arguments imply that there is a standard English sound independent of local or temporary usage. Now let it not be said that these are trivial matters fit only to amuse learned trifiers. No one who has taken pains to analyze the charm of good speaking will fail to appreciate the important part played by mere tone. Here then is the beginning of the teacher's work in forming right habits of speaking in his pupils. This work ought to have been going on long ago in their several homes: but the probability is that a large majority of the children in any school of any grade have not grown up under the influence of right examples, and that they will be sadly in need of discipline in this respect. And they ought to receive from the teacher, first, the example of good tones in his own speaking, and besides that, a patient, forbearing, oft-repeated training, till ear and voice become habituated to clear, full, and correct English sounds.

2. *Good English Articulation.*—When an American or Englishman attempts to learn a foreign language, French, German, or Italian, he finds almost invariably that his articulation of the consonants which are common to his own tongue and the one he may be learning, is quite inadequate to the demands of the latter. In the French word *force*, for example, there is no consonant element which differs in kind from the same letter in the English word, but the *f*, the *r*, and the *c*, all require a stronger and *cleaner* articulation in order to satisfy a French ear, than we ever give to them. The complaint of the Italian that he was too conscientious to be able to pronounce English, contained a deserved reproach upon our practice. One of the reasons why we are so charmed by the English of a foreigner who has attained some facility in the use of our language, is, that he retains the more forcible articulation which belongs to his own tongue. We meet with now and then one among ourselves whose articulation shows us how much our language gains in liquidness and music as well as in strength, when our consonants are finely uttered. English, at best, is somewhat encumbered with consonants, and unless they are easily and delicately delivered, our talking conveys to a nice ear an impression of some entanglement and confusion in the vocal apparatus, suggesting the imperfect tick of a cheap watch, or the embarrassed play of disordered machinery. A very little experience, either as a performer or listener will be enough to convince one that whether for purposes

of conversation, of reading, or of public speaking, a fine articulation is a most enviable accomplishment. He who is master of his organs of speech, and has trained them to the easy utterance of English sounds, has already accomplished one of the most important and difficult tasks which lie before one who is a candidate for popular favor as an orator, an actor, or a man of influence in any walk of life. He can make himself understood with comfort by a large assembly, comfort to the speaker and to the hearer: every word and syllable goes straight, like a winged arrow, to its mark: he does not tax, and weary, but gratifies the ear, and bespeaks for his thoughts the presumptive favor which a delighted hearer is not loath to give. But how often do we find ourselves saying of a speaker, "What a pity it is that he has such a thick and clumsy utterance! That man has thoughts that would really be of priceless value to the world, if men could be induced to listen to them, but in attempting to give them expression, he labors, splutters, and sweats, till he is tired of speaking and we of hearing; his words go rumbling over our heads, burst into air and are dissipated, without conveying any distinct sound to our ears." The poor man is probably well aware of his deficiency. Perhaps he has spent days and nights to overcome it. But when one comes late in life to appreciate the value of this faculty of clear articulation, he finds that his organs of speech have lost their flexibility, and can not now acquire the requisite nicety of adjustment and motion. Even the almost incredible exertions of Demosthenes would probably have been unavailing if he had been a few years older. Yet there is no doubt that, except in cases of structural defect in the vocal organs, this accomplishment may be acquired with perfect ease in childhood. Here then, also, is an important work for the teacher who would do his part in making the future minister, lawyer, or statesman—or what is of hardly less value—the future private citizen and the future mother, proficient in the use of language. Especially have teachers of elementary schools a great responsibility in this matter. No amount of pains *there* will be misplaced or ought to be grudged. And if by previous neglect it become necessary, let even the academy teacher lay aside, now and then, the algebras, the natural philosophies, almost any thing, and help his pupils to the more valuable attainment of a distinct, delicate, and we may even say, with the Italian, *conscientious* articulation.

3. *Good English Pronunciation.*—The term, as here used, involves the correct utterance of the literal elements *as found in particular words*, their correct combination into syllables and words,

and correct accentuation. Having learned the various powers of each alphabetic element, we still have to learn which one of its various powers each letter has in each particular word. It is from the want of this knowledge, and very often from the want of the knowledge of this principle, that most errors in pronunciation arise—at least in those words which we learn, or relearn, from books. It seems to be almost an instinctive judgment that each letter has some one definite sound, and that it ought to receive that sound in all words alike. Such would be the case if our alphabets were perfect. But they are not so, and the English certainly enjoys no advantages over others in this respect. It would be a great satisfaction and a great benefit to our teachers, if they knew enough of the history of our language to understand the occasion of this great diversity and apparent confusion in its orthoëpy: the fact that it is not a homogeneous but a conglomerate language, and that the words retain, to a great extent, in their orthography and pronunciation, traces of their diverse origin, and of the successive stages of their transformation. They would thus be able to give a satisfactory reason to themselves for many of the anomalies which they recognize, and would avoid many of the errors into which they fall from refusing to recognize anomalies. They would give up the entirely untenable position to which so many of them pertinaciously cling, that the pronunciation of a word is to be decided by its spelling. They would not insist on the proper sound of short *e* in *pretty*, nor of long *a* in *bade*, nor on the full sound of *t* in *often* and *listen*, on the ground that "p, r, e, t spells *prêt*, don't it?" No doubt many teachers, whose practice in the case of certain classes of words was good before they made it matter of reflection, have changed it to bad on what they supposed to be correct principle. But in order to reason correctly on questions of language, especially of orthoëpy, one needs to be well nigh omniscient in the history and usages of the language. He needs at least to understand what is called the genius of the language—that subtile and indefinable spirit which takes up and embraces in itself all the laws and usages of the language—a knowledge which can only have been attained through a tedious examination of a multitude of details. It can hardly be expected of teachers that they should be deeply versed in this kind of lore. To accomplish this would itself be almost the work of a lifetime. Nor is this at all necessary in order that we may be correct in our own pronunciation, or capable of imparting correct principles and practices in pronunciation to others. We must act in this matter as we are compelled to do in questions of medicine or of law—

conform our practice to the conclusions reached by those who *have* devoted their lives to such investigations. We must give up the conceited notion which all seem more or less inclined to entertain, that we are competent at a moment's notice to decide a question which involves so great an amount of knowledge as is sometimes wrapped up in the mere matter of pronunciation. In order to be a competent teacher of pronunciation, one must improve every opportunity of profiting by the example of those who are reputed to be authorities, for there are many things involved in good pronunciation which can be learned by the ear alone. Still very many of the questions which will naturally come before the teacher, will be satisfactorily answered for him by a good pronouncing dictionary. It will perhaps be thought that we are straining a point when we say that the teacher ought by all means to prepare his reading-lessons—even for the lower classes. He will probably find some one word or more in almost every lesson on which he is either uncertain or wrong: and one great secret of securing correct pronunciation in young pupils is to make sure that the very first time they meet a new word, they hear from the teacher and be required to give, themselves, its correct pronunciation.

4. *An ample English Vocabulary.*—The whole number of words collected in our largest English dictionaries is not far from fifty thousand. Mr. Marsh thinks that "the number of English words not yet obsolete, but found in good authors, or in approved usage by correct speakers, including the nomenclature of science and the arts, does not probably fall short of one hundred thousand." In contrast to the immense wealth thus offered to us all, how meagre is the amount of each one's actual possession! The same writer says that ordinary persons of fair intelligence do not use above three or four thousands words, and another very high authority fixes the number much lower. It is easy to conceive how poor must be the resources for expression of the man who has at his command only one word in twelve of fifteen of those found in our ordinary dictionaries—only one in every four of those found in Shakspeare. And yet it is to be noticed that many persons who have never used more than four thousand different words in their whole lives, are tolerably familiar with the meaning of four thousand more, as they meet them in reading, or hear them in the speech of others. But it is a very different thing to be able to understand what a word means when used by another in a connection which interprets it, from what it is to have such an *ownership* in the word as to hold it in readiness for our own use when occasion requires. It is only when

a word is thus ours not only to look upon, but to have and to hold, to use and to convey, that it really forms a part of our vocabulary. It is, however, from one's supply of words of the first kind that he must draw such new levies as his new exigencies may require. To meet the needs of an active mind, to express the new conceptions and fresh emotions to which such a mind gives birth almost every hour, words which had hitherto been only passively received, are called forth from their quiescent state to an active service, in which having been once employed, they remain forever after. Two different processes, therefore, are necessary in order to an increase of our vocabulary. The first increases our *acquaintance with* words, and is most successfully carried forward by means of a close attention to the language of the best speakers, in public, or in conversation, and a critical study of the diction of the best writers. The man of study and reflection derives some accession to his knowledge of words from every new author that he reads—who is worth reading: either some new word, or some new insight into the meaning and power of an old word. The second process is that of adopting and affiliating words which heretofore, though we recognized them, we treated as strangers. Or to drop the figure, we learn to use them, at first timidly and with study, gradually with more and more readiness and assurance, till they become incorporated with our permanent and veteran force of words.

The school can accomplish much for the pupils in the way of increasing their stock of words, by fixing in them the habit of verbal criticism in connection with their reading—the habit of noticing a new word, of obtaining some conception of its meaning before leaving it, and of applying their knowledge by using it in some sentence of their own. It is a practice in some schools—especially in English schools—to learn an abridged dictionary by heart. The younger Pitt is said to have attributed his skill in language to his having gone carefully through Bailey's dictionary three times. A mature mind, already largely conversant with the language, and with many languages, may have derived benefit from such a task, but no ordinary memory can retain words thus learned so as to hold them ready for use, even if it were possible for a young pupil to attain any adequate conception of a word by merely learning to repeat it with its definition. It is not probable that much actual increase of verbal knowledge is secured by the "Spellers and Definers" used in our schools—at least not in the case of abstract terms. A more natural and serviceable union of things would be a "Reader and Definer." A word is learned in its full meaning, and

in such a way as to be available for service, only by remarking its use in various connections, and thus gradually bringing together the several ideas which it involves.*

5. *Good English Grammar*,—Which, so far as our present inquiry is concerned, would include *etymology*, or the doctrine of forms and inflections, and *syntax*, or the laws of structure—the latter term also embracing the consideration of those anomalous forms of expression ratified by immemorial good use, which are known as *idioms*, or *idiotisms*. It is quite needless to remark that something more is required than a mere knowledge of technical grammar in order to speak grammatically—as, on the other hand, multitudes of examples prove that it is possible to speak grammatically without this knowledge. It is not intended by this assertion and others to the same import in other parts of this discussion, to undervalue the study of grammar for purposes of discipline, or even as an important aid to correct speaking, but simply to insist that practice after correct models, whether those models be in the concrete form of examples from the living voice or printed page, or in the abstract form of scientific rules, is the only way to secure grammatical language. There must be derived from one or the other of these sources—and better still if from both, a sort of grammatical habit, which in the course of time will become a grammatical *sense*, that is, a spontaneous and unconscious conforming of our language to the laws of grammar.

6. The particulars heretofore considered form the conditions of good speaking, the materials which it must employ, the data upon which it becomes possible. Besides all these, the good use of language involves certain mental processes and operations which can be looked for only in those who have attained to a considerable degree of mental development: such as, discrimination in the choice of words and expressions; good judgment in conforming the style of language to the occasion; tact in the construction of sentences so as to present a proposition in the most lively and impressive way; and, in general, that skill in the adaptation of means to ends which has been aptly termed "the art of putting things." Can the school

* "The first sentence where a word occurs, affords, it is probable, sufficient foundation for a vague conjecture concerning the notion annexed to it by the author;—some idea or other being necessarily substituted in its place, in order to make the passage at all intelligible. The next sentence where it is involved, renders this conjecture a little more definite; a third sentence contracts the field of doubt within still narrower limits; till, at length, a more extensive induction fixes completely the signification we are in quest of. There can not be a doubt, I apprehend, that it is in some such way as this, that children slowly and imperceptibly enter into the abstract and complex notion annexed to numberless words in their mother tongue, of which we should find it difficult or impossible to convey the sense by formal definitions."—*Stewart, on the tendency of some late philological speculations.*

contribute any thing to these higher requisites of good language, beyond that general discipline which qualifies the mind to do its best in all lines of effort? By direct instruction, of course, very little. All rules and precepts in those departments in which the mind is productive, are merely negative, marking certain bounds and prescribing certain restraints, within and under which the mind will work most effectively and with least waste of energy. Still the living teacher may do much for the pupil indirectly. He may point out the most favorable path for his unpractised feet, and himself lead the way: he may direct, encourage, and stimulate his efforts: he may show him the merits or the defects of his performances. But our suggestions under this head will be more advantageously introduced hereafter.

II. OPPORTUNITIES FOR SCHOOL TRAINING IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

We proceed now to examine the specific means by which the schools* may secure proficiency in these several qualifications for a good use of language. We do not propose any revolution and reconstruction of the school system, with a sole view to this result. It will be found, we think, that there are in the plan of school studies now existing, ample opportunities for securing a very considerable degree of success in the object we are aiming at. In fact, we consider ourselves rather as endeavoring to secure an extension and a more thorough application of the agencies already in some inadequate measure employed to accomplish this purpose, than as recommending any new apparatus.

1. *Reading.*—It is possible, and practicable, to unite, in the preparation of a reading-book and in conducting a reading lesson, three important ends; first, that discipline of ear and voice necessary to make a good reader; second, that acquaintance with good language which will tend to improve the reader's own speech; and third, the enlargement of his knowledge and the improvement of his character through the sentiment of what he reads. This exercise, thus conducted, becomes one of the richest and most productive of all the processes of education. The failure to appreciate its full power and capabilities, is one main reason, we think, why it is so apt to be slighted, and why the attainments that are made in it are so unsatisfactory. "Learning to read" is usually regarded as an exercise appropriate only to the lower grades of schools, where little more

* By the term *schools* here and throughout this discussion, is meant schools of all grades, colleges not excluded. The work marked out is expansive, and is to be adjusted to each grade of school from the primary upward.

than the mere mechanical utterance of the right words is to be expected. But all the higher qualities of good reading presuppose a culture and maturity of mind which we can reasonably look for only in the advanced students of our high schools and colleges. Good reading, embracing, as it does, clear and correct tones, distinct articulation, right pronunciation, together with emphasis and modulation, and calling into exercise those higher mental activities which are employed first in the appreciation and then in the reproduction of the thoughts and emotions of another mind, is not only one of the most valuable, but one of the most highly intellectual exercises of the school. Add to these requisites of good *reading* alone, the invitations it presents to verbal and rhetorical criticism; the model it offers for the attempts of the pupils themselves; and the valuable ideas, images, and impulses communicated to their minds if prepared to receive them, and it will be obvious that in order to make good readers, and to realize any considerable amount of the total benefit which may be derived from viva voce reading, the exercise ought to be carried up through higher and higher stages during the whole course of study, every accession of mental power being more than doubled in fruitfulness by being applied to improvement in reading.

2. *Conversation.*—One important part of every class exercise is what is properly implied in the word *recitation*, the going through an assigned work by the pupil, methodically, and without interruption. Another equally important part is a free and informal—though still methodical—*discussion* of the topic in hand. Some subjects admit and call for more of this discursive instruction than others: but all demand it to some extent. Here, on a limited scale, the pupils may enjoy the same kind of opportunities for exercising the use of language as in society, and with some advantages. The school *is*, in itself, a small society: the class is a select society, a social clique, with something of the same *esprit de corps* which gives zest to the interviews of its prototype in the great world. As a class, they have a definite topic for conversation—one on which they are bound to have some clear views: they have had the advantage of premeditation. This would tend to prevent that rambling and vagueness which make ordinary conversation mere dissipation, and for the same reason, of course, it would tend to promote clearness, precision, and vivacity in expression. There is thus a two-fold benefit in keeping before the mind as a prominent object, in these exercises, the improvement of the pupil in his use of language, because every attempt toward a clearer and happier expression of one's

views of a subject, has at the same time a tendency to make him seek for clearer and more satisfactory views. Beside the opportunity afforded for superintending the pupils' practice in the more elementary requisites of good speaking—for correcting or improving their utterance and pronunciation—there would be frequent occasion to call forth those higher mental activities which are concerned in the logical and rhetorical qualities of good language. Such questions as the following would frequently arise: Are you sure that that word expresses just what you wish to say? Can you not set forth that view a little more clearly and pointedly? What would you say to a person who should bring up this objection to such a view? How would you explain this to a man of good sense who was an untaught man and did not understand technical terms and scientific reasoning? It might be a thing for the teacher to determine, whether it would not be worth while, as an occasional exercise, to assemble a certain portion of the school for the simple purpose of conversing on some familiar topic outside of the school routine. For all the younger members of the school, such an exercise would answer the same end as the debating clubs among the young men—and, in our judgment, would answer it much more effectually, at least in the case of all who had not attained to considerable maturity of mind.

There are, however, certain studies which admit, and, if properly conducted, require, practice in the extemporaneous use of language in circumstances highly favorable to the development of one's powers of speech. One class of these studies may be represented by

3. *History.*—If the only thing aimed at was freedom and expressiveness of language, there could hardly be invented an exercise more serviceable to this end than a well-managed recitation in history. It need hardly be said that in order to secure this end—or indeed any good end, the pupil must not be allowed, much less encouraged by printed questions, to learn and repeat the exact words of the author. The exercise becomes, in that case, one of memory merely, and a very barren one in all respects. It will be a much better exercise in history, and an eminently useful one in language, if the pupil be required to make himself familiar with a certain period or chapter, and then be plied with questions which will oblige him to recombine the facts with which he has been furnished, into a new narrative, or to draw new inferences from them, and so, of course, to use his own language. The reason why we select history in preference to all other studies for this purpose, is because the narrative style is the basis of all good style. To be able even to

tell a simple story well, observing the due order and relations of events, passing naturally from one event to its consequent in order of time and of causation, is to have made the best possible beginning in that methodical arrangement of our thoughts and choosing of our expressions which is denominated style. And besides this, the copiousness of history, its capability of expansion, its suggestiveness, and its constant appeals to the imagination and the affections, make it the most inviting of all fields in which the young mind can be tempted to try its powers of thought and expression.

4. *Translation.*—It was a favorite argument of Dr. Arnold, for the use of the classics, that every exercise in translation is an exercise in English composition. And he claimed that translation offered certain advantages for the increase of one's command of words and expressions, such as are afforded by no other exercise. One is required to reproduce in his own tongue, not merely some thought or image in its bolder and more general outlines, but the very same thought and image in all their minute distinctness and their most delicate shades of conception. This will make it necessary for him to go outside of the little conventional stock of words which he finds sufficient for ordinary purposes, to drop the hackneyed turns of expression into which his words are apt to fall even in composition, and to range freely abroad in search of new words and new phrases adequate to the ever new emergencies. Think, for example, what an admirable discipline in English would be a faithful translation of Virgil, that most shamefully maltreated of all the school classics! Nothing is easier than to run the words together into the form of a sentence: but to find English words wherewith to express the Virgilian thoughts: to reproduce in pure English idiom that "rich economy of expression:" to be able to look on his picture and then on yours, and say you are satisfied—that is a task which will compel you to sweep the whole horizon of English in quest of its choicest words and expressions, and which will only bring you as your highest reward, an intelligent appreciation of the difficulty, the impossibility of complete success. Such an exercise soon becomes a ten-fold richer harvesting in the field of English than if an English instead of a Latin poet had been chosen for study. The same kind of benefit, though for obvious reasons, in a far less degree, may be secured by translation from French or any other modern language, into our own tongue. And yet it is manifest that in order to derive this species of benefit from translation, the pupil must not be allowed to give his version in a mongrel language that couples English words to a foreign idiom and leaves purity and elegance all out of the

question. He should be required to translate into good English, and, if possible, to eliminate from his English all the foreign smack which it is so apt to have. Any tendency to loose translation can be effectually thwarted by faithful questioning in syntax.

5. *Critical study of the English Classics.*—The argument in favor of *studying* our own best authors in some such way as we study the ancient classics, fails to receive the consideration due to it, because it is seldom brought forward except by opponents of classical studies. But because the most judicious friends of education would not consent to *substitute* the English for the Greek and Latin classics, it does not follow that the study of the former would not have important advantages of its own. And indeed, without making any invidious allusions to the amount of time and labor expended upon the best authors of antiquity, it is certainly a matter of surprise that our own classics are so rarely studied. They are somewhat extensively *read*, we are bound to suppose, by all whose reading extends beyond mere journalistic literature, but very rarely *studied* save by a few ripe minds that have found for themselves the rich rewards of such study. It is, however, not the cursory reading, but the close, and oft-repeated criticism of the best literature, which makes it chiefly valuable to the student, and especially to the student of language. Such a study could not be carried very far in our ordinary course of school instruction, but it might be well begun, and as was before intimated, the main point would be gained by forming right habits of critical reading. It is pleasant, though somewhat tantalizing, to imagine a class, such as it ought to be and might be, engaged in the critical study of a canto of the "Faëry Queen," or of a Book of "Paradise Lost," unravelling the intricate beauties of the poetic structure, tracing home the allusions, investigating the meaning of obscure words and noting the new uses of old ones, learning the matchless grace and power of the diction by the bald, staring poverty of any thing we can substitute in its place. It will be of great service also to the end we have now in view as well as to others still more important, to commit to memory choice passages from our best writers in prose and verse.

6. *English Composition.*—This exercise is the connecting link between reading and speaking. It gathers up the results of reading, digests, assimilates, and prepares them for actual use. Nothing contributes so much to clearness, precision, pointedness and elegance in language, as much practice with the pen. Without this discipline, the results of our reading will in great part be dissipated for want of a thoughtful and deliberate application of them to some purpose

of our own. It is not by means of phrases culled from books and lying loosely in our memories, ready to be taken up and repeated, that our language is to be enriched through our reading. We ought rather to regard our reading as making us acquainted with new forces which we must learn how to appropriate, and combine, and adapt to our own uses: and the process by which this power is best acquired is *writing*.

In order to accomplish its purpose more effectually, English composition in the schools should be more frequent and more systematic. There is no good reason why this should be the most difficult and irksome of all school tasks. It is as unreasonable to require a pupil simply to "write a composition," without giving him any aid or direction, as it would be to send him out at night without book or chart to learn astronomy. Quintilian gives us an amusing picture of a poor fellow lying on his back, looking wishfully up to the ceiling, and trying various physical incitements to thought, in the vain attempt to get some start in his "composition," instead of going about it in what he calls a "rational way," that is, according to some method and system. The "rational way" to accustom young persons to easy, natural, and accurate writing, is to let the practice of composition keep pace with their attainments in other things. Their earliest attempts should be nothing more than a careful writing down of what they could easily tell to a comrade by word of mouth. A composition with them means, what they have seen, or heard, or read. It may not be advisable at first even to require that there be any definite subject, or any close connection between their observations. Let them ramble on in a child's way, just as if they were writing a letter. Indeed writing letters is one of the very best methods of beginning the practice of composition. By degrees, as their knowledge increases, and their power of expression becomes more and more developed, other styles of writing will be as easy to them as was this to the child. Let the teacher prescribe the class of subjects in which he will have his pupils write, and in doing so, let him follow the order pointed out by the law of succession in the development of the faculties.

It will be noticed by some, perhaps with disapproval, that among the means of discipline in the knowledge and use of English, a study of Anglo-Saxon and of other cognate European tongues has not been included. This is owing to no failure to appreciate the great value of such studies to one who would become thoroughly master of his native tongue in all its historical, philological, and philosophical relations. But having mainly in view the needs and occasions

of practical life rather than of scholarly research, and having promised to show what could be done with the ordinary school machinery which we already have, we have hesitated to suggest the introduction of these studies for this purpose alone. In the case, however, of those who, for other or for any reasons, are studying Latin, French, or German—especially the last—there is afforded an admirable opportunity for tracing out the derivation, development, and affinities of English words—an opportunity which a faithful instructor will not fail to turn to a highly valuable account.

Before closing the discussion of this subject, it may be advisable to add a single remark by way of caution. While few accomplishments confer a greater charm than correct and elegant speaking, perhaps nothing is more repulsive than an affected precision and modishness in one's style of language. In a certain popular comedy, a retired Butler who had married an antiquated School-mistress, and had in few years found himself reduced from his former ample dimensions to the lean and slippered pantaloon, though he was still in his prime, calls together his friends to assist in arranging the terms of a separation, bringing forward as the main charge against his spouse, that she was "always taking him up on his pronunciation." We can hardly imagine a state of things more destructive to matrimonial or any other kind of comfort, than a perpetual *cavillation* of this kind. Give us, by all means, Mrs. Partington, or Mr. Sam. Weller, for a companion in conversation, in preference to a pedant or a prude. It is greatly to be desired that those with whom we associate should speak purely and correctly, but that, after all, is a luxury which we *can* dispense with: but a verbal coxcomb who displays his own conceit of superiority in every word *he* utters, and who, we know, is sneeringly criticising every word *we* utter, is more than human nature can bear. The effort to be correct, if apparent, robs correctness of all merit. The consciousness of being elegant, turns elegance into affectation. Above all other things, language must be natural, spontaneous, unstudied, or else we reject it as spurious.

X. ASSOCIATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES.

Our views of the nature and advantages of associations for educational purposes are set forth in the following extracts from a "Report on the Public Schools of Rhode Island in 1845."

The object aimed at was to bring the friends of school improvement, scattered over a town, county, or the State even, together, as often as their convenience will allow, that by an interchange of views and acquaintance with each other, they may form new bonds of sympathy and channels of united effort in promoting its success. It is applying to the advancement of public schools the same instrumentality which has proved so useful in every other great enterprise of the day.

These associations should be extended so as to embrace the females, and especially the mothers of a district or town. Let the mothers read, converse with each other, and become well informed as to what constitutes a good school; and the fathers and brothers who are voters will be reminded of their neglect of the school interest of the district or town. Let them visit the places where their little children are doomed to every species of discomfort; and improvements in the seats, desks, modes of warming and ventilating schoolrooms will follow. There is a motive power in the ardor and strength of maternal love, if it can once be properly informed and enlisted in this work, which must act most powerfully and beneficently on the improvement of public schools and the progress of society generally.

Teachers in every town have been urged to hold occasional meetings, or even a single meeting, for the purpose of listening to practical lectures and discussions, or what would in most cases be better, of holding familiar conversation together, on topics connected with the arrangement of schools, on methods of instruction now practiced or recommended in the various periodicals or books which they have consulted, and on the condition of their own schools. But something more permanent and valuable than these occasional meetings has been aimed at by an organization of the teachers of the State, or at least of a single county, into a Teachers' Institute, with a systematic plan of operations from year to year, which shall afford to young and inexperienced teachers an opportunity to review the studies they are to teach, and so witness, and to some extent practice, the best methods of arranging and conducting the classes of a school, as well as of obtaining the matured views of the best teachers and educators on all the great topics of education, as brought out in public lectures, discussions and conversation. The attainments of solitary reading will thus be quickened by the action of living mind. The acquisition of one will be tested by the experience and strictures of others. New advances in any direction by one teacher will become known, and made the common property of the profession. Old and defective methods will be held up, exposed and corrected, while valuable hints will be followed out and proved. The tendency to a dogmatical tone and spirit, to one-sided and narrow views, to a monotony of character—which every good teacher fears, and to which most professional teachers are exposed, will be withstood and obviated. The sympathies of a common pursuit, the interchange of ideas, the discussion of topics which concern their common advancement, the necessity of extending their reading and inquiries, and of cultivating the habit of written and oral expression, all these things will attach teachers to each other, elevate their own character and attainments, and the social and pecuniary estimation of the profession.

XI. THE AMERICAN EDUCATION SOCIETY.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

THE *American Education Society*, from the start, set before itself only one simple object—that of helping to bring forward, year by year, worthy and well-educated men for the work of the Christian ministry. It was a most legitimate outgrowth from that living principle, deeply rooted in the minds of the early founders of New England, that "the priest's lips should keep knowledge, and they should seek the law at his mouth." From the first, it has had no sympathy with partial and superficial courses, but has aimed steadily and constantly to encourage the most thorough education known in our institutions, that it might perpetuate in the churches a succession of ministers worthy of the early days. In 1640, less than twenty years after the landing at Plymouth, there was a graduate of Cambridge University, England, to every two hundred and fifty inhabitants; and, including the graduates of Oxford University, it may fairly be reckoned that for every two hundred inhabitants in the colonies, there was a graduate of an English University; and nearly all of these were in the ministry. Many of them were men of rare ability and accomplishment. Some of them were the choice scholars of England. "The Rev. John Cotton, of Boston, had been head lecturer and Dean of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. He had a very accurate knowledge of the languages, and was able to converse in Hebrew and Latin. John Norton, first of Ipswich, then of Boston, was offered a fellowship at Cambridge. So various were the attainments of John Davenport, of New Haven, that he was called the *Universal Scholar*. Thomas Hooker, of Hartford, *the Light of the Western Churches*, had been advanced to a fellowship at Cambridge. Thomas Thacher, of Weymouth, composed a Hebrew Lexicon. Charles Chauncy, afterward President of Harvard College, was Greek Professor for some time in Trinity College, Cambridge. Many others were signal examples of scholarship and genius."

It was among such men as these that the idea and plan of the

first New England College were conceived. In one of the old records of those early days, we find the following clear and beautiful statement of their thoughts and feelings: "After God had carried us safe to New England, and we had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our livelihood, reared convenient places for God's worship, and settled the civil government, one of the next things we longed for and looked after was, to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity, dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches after our present ministry shall be in the dust." Let this be read in the light of what has been said before and we can see the fullness of its meaning. The "present ministry" here spoken of, was made up of those illustrious men who had come out in such numbers from the Old World to cast in their lot with the infant colonies. But a supply of such men from foreign parts, in numbers sufficient to meet the growing wants of the colonies, could not long be hoped for. Educated men must be raised up on these shores. And so Harvard College was founded in 1638, and graduated its first class in 1642.

Go forward, now, some sixty years, to the year 1696, and Cotton Mather, in the first book of his Magnalia, has given us the exact condition of things at this point of time. There were then in the New England colonies 129 churches, in which were laboring 116 ministers, and of these, 107 were graduates of Harvard College. The old order of things has passed away. The old ministers who came out in such numbers from England are sleeping in the dust.

The wisdom and foresight shown in laying the foundation of the college so early are fully justified. In 1698, Harvard College had graduated 419 men, and, of these, 218 had entered the ministerial profession, though many of them in the meantime had passed away by death.

In 1700, Yale College started, and the work of liberal education in New England was intrusted to these two institutions alone until the latter part of the eighteenth century, when Brown University, Dartmouth and Williams Colleges were added to the list. The year 1800 finds five colleges in operation in New England. Three more—Middlebury, University of Vermont, and Bowdoin—were added in the opening years of the present century, and others have followed, until our present number is fourteen.

Now it will not be denied that all these colleges, and especially the earlier ones, were originated with the main idea of producing Christian ministers. Whether we approve or disapprove, the fact, it must be confessed, is even so. More than half the graduates of Harvard

College for the first hundred years of its existence entered the ministry. More than half the graduates of Yale, for fifty years from its foundation, followed in the same path.

In the funds raised, and in the methods of instruction adopted, prominent reference was always had to ministerial education. But beyond this, there was nothing narrow in the practical working of these institutions. Their doors stood open to all comers; and so broad and catholic was the culture therein furnished, that young men, whatever path they had marked out for themselves in life, might find here ample opportunities for acquiring general knowledge.

With such thought and care as were thus taken, and with the facilities thus afforded, the production of ministers was, as a general rule, rapid enough, so long as the population of this country was found almost entirely along the Atlantic shore. But the opening part of the present century was destined to witness a great change in this respect. The broad fields of the West began to open upon the sight. From the compact mass of Eastern population, streams of emigration began to move off in various directions into these new territories, and Christian society was to form and take shape under the shades of the wilderness. Coincident with this movement, arose the idea of evangelizing the world by sending out from Christian lands living preachers and teachers to instruct ignorant and benighted nations. To meet these changes in our American population, and to provide laborers for these foreign enterprises, it was seen and felt by reflecting Christian men that something must be done to give a new and enlarged impulse in the work of producing ministers of the gospel. The seats of learning were along the Atlantic coast; and of these, the colleges of New England were most prominent. And yet working in their normal way, and under such influences and incentives as had heretofore operated, it could not be hoped that they would meet the new call which was now coming upon them. And it may be interesting in this connection to look upon the following table, which shows what our New England colleges have done in the way of producing ministers, from the date of the first founding of Harvard College down to the year 1820, arranged in periods of ten years. We stop at this last date for the present, because from 1820 until the present time, we have the results of the new impulse, of which we shall presently speak more particularly. We give, in this table, the results of the activity of all the New England colleges in this line, adding the new ones as fast as they enter the list.

	Ministers.		Ministers.
From 1640—1650	22	From 1730—1740	195
" 1650—1660	37	" 1740—1750	176
" 1660—1670	31	" 1750—1760	178
" 1670—1680	28	" 1760—1770	224
" 1680—1690	35	" 1770—1780	219
" 1690—1700	72	" 1780—1790	264
" 1700—1710	95	" 1790—1800	310
" 1710—1720	99	" 1800—1810	427
" 1720—1730	195	" 1810—1820	635

In the last ten years thus named, we begin to perceive the decidedly upward tendency springing from the new interest and attention which this subject had awakened in the public mind. The Education Society was organized in the year 1815, and by the year 1820, the results begin to make themselves distinctly manifest. The leap from the previous number is decidedly larger than will be found anywhere else along the line.

It may be well to complete this tabular view of the New England colleges at this point, so that the whole may be brought near together, and may meet the eye at one glance:

	Ministers.
From 1820—1830	965
" 1830—1840	1077
" 1840—1850	1000 nearly.

It is difficult to bring this reckoning down for another period of ten years, because, in the nature of things, several years must elapse before the graduates of any college come to be fully and correctly reported, *as to their profession*, in the Triennial catalogues. But it is entirely safe to say, that from the year 1820 to 1860, more ministers were produced from the New England colleges than for the whole period of 180 years, (reckoning from the founding of Harvard College,) which had preceded. And beside, in the meantime, a great number of colleges had come into existence through all the fields of the West, which were busy in the same department of education.

We come now more distinctly to the formation of the Education Society. Its founders, when they began their work, had all the difficulties which arise from originating a thoroughly *new* institution. They could go nowhere for a model. Just as the first American college had to be, in the nature of things, a new formation, unlike, in many important respects, any thing that had gone before in the Old World, so this society must be formed as a new thing, and according to the best judgment which could be brought to bear upon it. Education by charity was not a new thing. All the old universities of Europe have their funds and their foundations to help in the way of education. All of our colleges partake largely of the same element. Our common school system has the same foundation. But

here was something designed to supplement all this, and to add a new and powerful stimulus additional to what had been given before.

The first regular meeting looking to this organization was held in the vestry of Park street Church, Boston, on Thursday, July 20, 1815. The meeting was called by a circular letter, signed and sent forth by Rev. Jedediah Morse, D. D., Rev. John Codman, Rev. Joshua Huntington, Deacon John E. Tyler, Mr. Pliny Cutler, Mr. Richard Pierce and Mr. J. B. Minor. This was the first regular meeting; but influences had been at work, far and wide, looking in this direction for some time previous. It happens in this matter, as in many other similar cases, that there are many claimants for the honor of first suggesting such an organization. Local combinations and organizations were taking place at several scattered points in New England, and it would be extremely difficult to settle the question, where the first combined effort was made in this direction. A society of ladies already existed in Boston, formed the previous Spring, and called "The Educational Society of Boston and Vicinity," but it is very doubtful whether this was the first. A wide-spread conviction was growing in the Christian mind of New England that something more must be done in this line, and this conviction gave rise to many local movements.

This meeting, called July 20th, 1815, after conference, was adjourned to meet in the same place, August 29th, of the same year, at which time a constitution was adopted and the society formed; but the meeting was again adjourned till February 26th, for the choice of officers. At this meeting a sermon was preached and a collection taken. On the following year application was made for a charter, and the society was incorporated December 4th, 1816, by the General Court of Massachusetts, with the name, "The American Society for Educating Pious Youth for the Gospel Ministry." This name being found inconvenient, it was changed by the Legislature, January 31st, 1820, to "The American Education Society," which name it still bears.

The society, being thus organized and chartered in Boston, became a nucleus, about which all little organizations of this kind, already existing or having a tendency to exist, naturally gathered. Its agency, too, was soon very manifest in starting into life many local societies in different parts of New England and the land, which became auxiliary to this. We quote here a few sentences from the twenty-third annual report (for the year 1839,) which report contains a most extended summary of all that had gone before:

"County auxiliaries were established in Norfolk, Middlesex, Essex, and Berkshire, in 1816 and 1817. The Auxiliary Education Society

of the Young Men of Boston was formed in 1818; and the Female Education Society for Boston and Vicinity about the same time. As early as this, Auxiliary Education Societies had been formed in Georgia and South Carolina both by ladies and gentlemen. A society styled the Maine Branch of the American Education Society was formed in that State before April, 1819. Previously to September, 1819, an Education Society was formed for the State of Connecticut, and it early voted to become a branch of the American Education Society, but the connection was not fully consummated till 1826. June 29, 1819, a Branch Society was formed in Vermont, directly connected with the parent institution. A Branch Society was established in New Hampshire, September, 1826. July 11, 1827, the Branch Societies of Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont were, by vote, formally recognized as Branches."

* * * * * *

"October 23, 1818, a Society was formed, called the Education Society of the Presbyterian Church, in the United States, embracing the States of New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania. In 1820, it took the name of the Presbyterian Education Society; but it never became a branch of the American Education Society till May, 1827."

After the union of this Presbyterian Society, under the name of the "Presbyterian Branch of the American Education Society," the organization became a truly national one, and had its affiliations with every part of the land. The first break in this extended arrangement occurred when the division in the Presbyterian Church took place; and the major part, known among us as the "Old School Presbyterian Church," formed its own "Board of Education," and ceased from this general coöperation. The other part, called the "New School Presbyterian Church," still retained its old connection with the American Education Society. That which had been called the "Presbyterian Branch," &c., in 1837, took the name of the "Central American Society," and was located in the city of New York, with branches of itself in Philadelphia, Western New York, and other places. In this shape matters stood until recently. Within a few years, without any formal act of separation, the New School Presbyterians have gradually withdrawn from this coöperation, and now have their own education committee, and carry on this department of benevolent effort in their own way; so that the American Education Society has come to be essentially what it was in its early days—the property of the Orthodox Congregationalists, though it still affords aid with the same catholic spirit which has always marked its proceedings to Presbyterians, and to some extent also to Baptists, Free-Will Baptists, and Methodists.

It has been already remarked that this society in its origin was an experiment. There was no model to copy after, no old experience to serve as a guide. It was but natural, therefore, that changes in the forms and methods of procedure should take place from time to time, according as experience has been acquired. We wish briefly to indicate some of these modifications, which have been made in order to realize more fully and adequately what the friends of the society have all along been seeking after.

And first, we will notice the different rules which have prevailed in the appropriation of money to the young men. When the society was first started, for a few years, the usage was to appropriate to each young man what was deemed to be sufficient for him, under the circumstances. The condition of one man might be quite unlike that of another in respect to need, and in respect also to facilities for helping himself. And so, for a time, the appropriation was a variable quantity. But, after a little experience, this method was found not to work well. It involved an endless amount of examination and care, and would be partial and defective after all. While this rule prevailed, the money was *given*, not *loaned*. The next step was to make the sum a definite one to all the students alike, and still it was a *gratuity*. But it was thought best to try the loaning system. In October, 1820, the system of loans was commenced; and, in this first shape, half of the money was a gratuity and half a loan, for which the student gave his note. In 1826, the rule was again changed, and the whole was made a loan, and was payable by installments in one, two, and three years after the young man should come into the ministry. The rule was again altered in 1836, by which the time of payment was extended to five years, and a discount of twelve per cent. per annum should be made, if the money was paid back within the five years; but, if not, then the whole was to be paid. By this rule, a debt of $100, if paid in the first year after the young man entered the ministry, could be paid with $40. If paid during the fifth year, the sum required would be $88. After the expiration of the five years, the whole sum was to be paid with interest from that time. But in 1842, the loaning system was abandoned as a requirement—that is, the money was given as a gratuity, unless the student preferred to take it as a loan. Now and then some one prefers the loan, but almost all receive the appropriation as a gratuity. This last method has prevailed now for twenty-two years, and there is no disposition to abandon it. It was found by long experience, that young men coming into the ministry in this way were poorly prepared to pay this debt. In almost all cases, other debts to some extent had

been incurred, which must first be paid, the salaries were small, a young family perhaps to be provided for, so that this debt to the Education Society was a burden that tired the spirit and hindered the man's usefulness. The directors of the society will not, therefore, be likely ever to return to it.

Another series of modifications, which have taken place from time to time during the long history of the society, has reference to the scholarship and standing of the young men at the time they are received upon its list. During the early years of the society, and indeed up to the year 1841, young men, in order to receive of its funds, must have pursued classical studies for *six months* In the above-mentioned year, the rule was altered to *twelve months.* In the year following 1842, the rule was again altered, and the candidate was required to be ready to enter college before he could receive this aid, with this exception, that in Academies where a *three years* course existed, preparatory to college, the student might receive aid in the *third year.* This was in accordance with that general aim of the society noticed in the outset, by which it has always favored the most thorough education known in our institutions. This rule was continued in this form until some two years since, and was abandoned at last, not because it was not regarded as a good one in itself, but because of a practical difficulty in working it. Some academies had a kind of three years' course, and still were not the schools contemplated in the rule.

As the case now stands, the student must effect an honorable entrance into some regular college before he can receive the funds of the society; and from this point to the end of his theological course, he can receive aid. The later usage of the society, demanding this higher grade of scholarship for admission to its list, has been found safe and advantageous, and has done much to raise the character of the society. If the young man has no genius for scholarship, the fact is discovered by others and discovered by himself before he has occasion to make application to the society for aid.

And, in this connection, it is suitable that something should be said of the general character of these men, regarded as scholars. We have found, by frequent experience, that very many persons have, on this point, an exceedingly false impression. And this mistaken notion is quite as common with educated men as with any others, and comes apparently in this way. In their college days, they remember among their fellow-students, one or two men, somewhat advanced in life, plain, honest, good, but regarded as scholars, coarse, slow and blundering. They remember them as Education Society students.

And without much thought or care they fall into the habit of regarding them as the type of men aided by this society. The first scholar in their own class, not unlikely, may also have been an Education Society student; but they did not know the fact, or if they did, it was easily overlooked and forgotten.

Now, on the other hand, what we have to say on this subject is not a mere impression or matter of private opinion. The false idea above referred to has been so current for a long time among certain classes of men, that in the year 1849, the then Secretary of the Education Society sent out a circular to the officers of colleges throughout the land, where these young men had been pursuing their studies, asking a statement from them on this very point. Many answers were received, bearing testimony to the good standing which these men had sustained as scholars. In general, however, the statements were not definite enough to be here quoted as final and satisfactory authority. But President Woolsey, of Yale College, went into a careful examination of the whole subject, as connected with that institution; and below we give his testimony. His first letter was written April 20th, 1850, and is as follows:

"DEAR SIR:—I sit down to answer your letter by saying, that if you will remind me of it about the 20th of May, I will prepare you some statistics which may serve your cause. Meanwhile, let me give you the results of a brief experience.

I have six classes in view.

In the first were six beneficiaries, of whom four were appointees, and two were not.

In the next were two, both of whom were appointees, and one of them the third scholar.

In the third class there were nine beneficiaries, of whom eight received appointments at commencement, and three of them were among the principal scholars.

In the fourth class there are six beneficiaries, all of whom are appointees. And besides these, there have been two others; one, an excellent scholar, died; and another was dropped from the list by advice of the committee here for poor scholarship.

In the next class there are four beneficiaries, all of whom are appointees.

In the sixth there are four, of whom, two, at least, rank among the best scholars." * *

Now when it is remembered that, according to the usage of the college at that time, a man must have been in the first third of his class to receive any appointment at all, it will be seen at a glance how very far these men rise above the average scholarship of the college.

Subsequently, the second letter was furnished, which goes over the entire history of the work of the Education Society, as connected with

that one institution. We give the whole result of this examination in a brief summary:

Beneficiaries graduated at Yale College, from 1817 to 1846 inclusive....249
Had such a rank in their class as to receive honors.....157

To bring these men down to the average, only 83 should have received appointments. All will agree that facts like these, prepared by a man so exact, and himself so ripe and elegant a scholar, are worth far more than loose and general impressions. We could wish that all who received the circular had answered in the same careful and statistical way, for we should then have a vast collection of facts on which to base conclusions. Whether the colleges generally could show so good a record as pertaining to this subject, we can not say; but we know of no reason why statistics drawn from other colleges should not be of essentially the same stamp.

And let it be remembered that the record above given goes back to the early years of the society's existence and takes in all that was crude and imperfect in its first experiences. For the last twenty years, all its rules and arrangements have been fitted to secure a much higher average result, as pertains to mere scholarship, than in the first twenty years of its history. It is very easy to laugh at the blunders of some one awkward man, who was assisted by this society. But one bird does not make a flock. The actual result, which comes from an examination of this whole work, is essentially what we might expect it to be. Take five thousand and more young men, drawn out largely from the hills and valleys of New England, from the sturdy middle class, with an earnest purpose, and why should they not show well? Where shall we go to find a better stock? If it were permitted, without treading upon delicate ground, simply to mention the names of men living and dead, who received this assistance in their education, we need not argue the point. The list of names which we could furnish forth from the records of the society would of itself be ample to silence all cavil.

We have spoken of these men as coming from the *middle class* of our American society. The words "poor," "student of charity," "beneficiaries," &c., as applied to them, often mislead the mind. These young men do *not* come, as a general rule, from homes of extreme poverty. They come from the substantial laboring classes. They are poor, not in reference to the means of an ordinary and comfortable livelihood, but poor in reference to an enterprise requiring the time and expense of a public education. They start from the same general condition of life as enterprising merchants, manufacturers and business men in every department of activity; only

from the object which they set before themselves, they have to spend the years of early manhood as consumers rather than producers. And this is the sense in which they are poor. What, then, should hinder these men—picked men we might call them, since they are driven on by a law of inward propulsion, and in the face of great obstacles to seek a public education—what should hinder them from becoming first-class scholars, and rising to stations of commanding usefulness? Nothing certainly has hindered them from doing so, as we could easily show by calling names.

The gross amount of money raised by the American Education Society in furtherance of its purposes, from its foundation in 1815 to May 1st, 1863, is $1,518,016. This includes what has come by donations of churches and individuals, by legacies, by refunded loans, and by income from permanent funds.

The permanent fund of the society is now $81,000. The main part of this was raised more than thirty years ago, but is from time to time augmented. The largest amount of general funds received during any one year in the history of the society was for the year ending May 1st, 1835. The receipts for that year were $83,062. This was just before the division in the Presbyterian Church, and when the society embraced the whole land.

The practical management of the society is by a board of thirteen directors, including the president and vice-president, who are ex-officio members of the board. The business is principally transacted in four quarterly meetings, held on the second Wednesdays of January, April, July, and October, though special meetings are occasionally called, as exigencies may require. At these regular quarterly meetings, the applications of students are brought before the board, through the agency of committees existing at the colleges or theological schools, where the young men are pursuing their education, and each quarterly appropriation is made by a vote at the time. For all the cases where everything is clear and regular, the appropriations are voted in the mass. But all doubtful or exceptional cases are considered separately and are decided on their merits.

What may be called the *usual* appropriation, taking the whole history of the society at one view, is $80 a year, or $20 a quarter. But sometimes the appropriation has been made to vary from this by choice, and sometimes by necessity. Of late, an effort has been made to increase the appropriation to $100 a year, or $25 a quarter, and the last three or four appropriations have been made on this basis.

The first president of the society was His Honor, Lieut. Gov. William Phillips, elected December 7th, 1815, and holding office until

his death in 1826. He was succeeded by Hon. Samuel Hubbard, who remained in office until 1843. Hon. Samuel T. Armstrong was his successor, but retained the place only a single year, resigning through failing health. Hon. Lewis Strong was then president until 1850, when resigning, Rev. Hemun Humphrey was chosen, and held office until his death in 1861. Henry Hill, Esq., of Boston, was chosen to fill his place, and now holds the office.

In the early years of the society, there was no office of secretary, such as now exists. This place was created in 1826, and Rev. Elias Cornelius appointed to fill it. His services in behalf of the society can hardly be overestimated. He resigned in 1832 to take the office of Secretary in the American Board of Missions, but soon after died. He was succeeded in the Secretaryship of the Education Society by Rev. Wm. Cogswell, who held the office until 1841. The next secretary was Rev. Samuel H. Riddel, who remained in office till 1850. In 1851, Rev. Increase N. Tarbox was chosen the office, and still retains it. The whole number of young men who have received assistance from the funds of the society from its foundation, including those now passing through their course of education, is 5,160. The period when the society had its largest number was from 1835–40. In some of these years the number rose to more than 1,000. All parts of the land then combined to swell the numbers. The change of rule in 1842, by which students were not received in the earlier departments of preparatory study, of itself would have the effect to reduce the number very considerably. The separation in the Presbyterian Church acted also in the same direction. And besides, about the year 1840, there was a decided reaction in this movement. Many felt that the society was working too fast. There was also a serious financial difficulty and embarrassment, so that from 1840 to 1845 there was a marked decline in the operations of the society. From that time until the present, there has been a gradual and healthy growth. Leaving out what still remained of the Presbyterian branch, and which was working in a somewhat broken way, in alliance with the parent society—leaving this out of view, and confining ourselves simply to the work of the society in Boston, and the following table will show at a glance the numbers aided, year by year, since 1844:

For the year	ending April	30,	1844,	the beneficiaries	numbered			230
"		"	1845,		"		"	.. 218
"		"	1846,		"		"	.. 238
"		"	1847,		"		"	.. 246
"		"	1848,		"		"	.. 275
"		"	1849,		"		"	.. 285
"		"	1850,		"		"	.. 294
"		"	1851,		"		"	.. 277
"		"	1852,		"		"	.. 294

For the year ending	April 30,	1853,	the beneficiaries numbered					308
"		"	1854,		"		"	.. 297
"		"	1855,		"		"	.. 328
"		"	1856,		"		"	.. 309
"		"	1857,		"		"	.. 332
"		"	1858,		"		"	.. 345
"		"	1859,		"		"	.. 344
"		"	1860,		"		"	.. 372
"		"	1861,		"		"	.. 370
"		"	1862,		"		"	.. 324
"		"	1863,		"		"	.. 267

The number for the year about to close will be somewhat less than the last. This dropping down since 1861 is due entirely to the war, which absorbs so largely the young men of the land. It affects this work in a somewhat larger degree than it affects the colleges, both because the average age of the young men on our list is a little greater than the average age of students generally, and because these men would be more likely, from their principles, to enter the army than the average of students. The New England colleges, taken in the mass, have fallen down since 1861 from 2,850 undergraduate students to about 2,300—a little less than one-fifth; while the number on the list of this society has fallen about one-third.

Of the whole number aided since the foundation of the society, we have not the means at hand for determining, with any degree of accuracy, how many have passed away by death. Those who survive are certainly to be reckoned by thousands. Not far from one-third of the Congregational ministry of New England is composed of this class; and, throughout the Middle States, and through all the fields of the West, as well as on distant missionary ground, these men are very thickly scattered.

We have thus taken a general survey of the operations of the American Education Society. Much more might with propriety be said, but this may suffice to give some distinct idea of its objects and aims, and to show the results of its activity.

In this connection, and as a fitting close to this article, it is suitable that we should add the results which have been secured by other organizations in this land, acting in the same general department, and with similar rules and methods.

What is now known as the "Presbyterian Board of Education," was formed under the name of the "Education Society" in 1819. In 1825 the name was changed to the present. For several years it was connected with the American Education Society, and its affairs were involved, so that for this period, the money received and the young men aided, have already been included in the record already made. This arrangement did not, however, continue for a long time.

The sum total of money received by the Board up to May 1st, 1863, is $1,469,032, and the whole number of men aided is 3,202.

Within a few years, the New School Presbyterian Church has taken separate action upon this subject, and have their own "Committee on Education." Their operations have not as yet been long enough continued to add greatly to the foregoing summary.

The only other organization of this kind in the land known to the writer is the "Northern Baptist Education Society," the sum total of whose work has been comparatively small.

BETA BATES EDWARDS.

PROFESSOR BETA BATES EDWARDS, Assistant Secretary of the American Education Society, and editor of the American Quarterly Register, from 1828 to 1842 the organ of the society, was born in Southampton, Mass., on the 4th of July, 1802; fitted for college at the academy at Hadley, and, with the Rev. Moses Hallock, of Plainfield; entered Williams College in 1820, and followed President Moore to Amherst, where he graduated in 1824, at the age of twenty-two. In the autumn of 1824, he entered the Theological Seminary at Andover, and, at the close of the first year's course, repaired to Amherst to a tutorship in the college, where he remained two years. In 1828, he returned to Andover to resume his theological studies, and become assistant secretary of the American Education Society. In this relation, his chief labor was to edit the American Quarterly Register, which, under his able and enthusiastic management, became a storehouse of educational statistics, biography, and history. Prof. Parks, in his Memoirs of Prof. E., remarks:

The American Quarterly Review was established in 1827, and called the Quarterly Review of the American Education Society. In 1829, it received the name of the Quarterly Register and Journal of the American Education Society. In 1830, its title became the Quarterly Register of the American Education Society. From 1831 it was called the American Quarterly Register. Rev. Elias Cornelius was associated with Mr. Edwards in editing the first and second volumes, Rev. Dr. Coggswell in editing the tenth, eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth volumes, and Rev. Samuel H. Riddell in editing the fourteenth volume. Although a similar periodical had been proposed as early as 1817, and such men as Dr. Eliphalet Pearson and Dr. Abiel Holmes had felt a deep interest in its publication, yet the actual plan of the Register, in its most important features, was formed by the subject of this memoir, and the spirit of the work was also his. "He brought to it," said the Directors of the American Education Society,* "a fullness of knowledge, a perfection of taste, and a skill for historical investigation rarely to be found combined in one so young." He designed to make it a storehouse of facts for the present and future generations. It gave a new impulse to statistical inquiries in our land. It contains indispensable materials for our future ecclesiastical history. Those elaborate descriptions and tabular views of the academies, colleges, professional schools, public libraries, eleemosynary associations in this country and in Europe; those historical and chronological narratives of parishes, states, kingdoms, sects, eminent men, philanthropic schemes; those calm and trustworthy notices of our current literature; those choice selections and chaste essays were, in great part, either prepared by himself, or at his suggestion, or revised by his discriminating eye. In his superintendence of those fourteen, and more especially of the first ten octavo volumes, so much more useful to others than the care of them could have been to himself, he had melancholy occasion to say, *Aliis in serviendo consumor.*

While making his tours of observation among our colleges and theological schools, Mr. Edwards became satisfied that more effort must be made for the moral and mental culture of our pastors, as well as ministerial candidates. He desired to foster the continued interest of our clergy in all good learning, by opening an avenue through which they might communicate their thoughts to the world. It was partly for the purpose of calling out their hidden energies, that he established in July, 1838, the American Quarterly Observer. In sustaining this work, he encountered difficulties which can be fully appreciated by no one who has not himself started a periodical. He traveled extensively through the Southern, Middle, and New England States, in order to converse personally with the ablest writers of the land, and secure their coöperation in his new enterprise. He published three volumes of the Observer, and then united it with the Biblical Repository, which had been during the four preced-

* See their Thirty-sixth Annual Report, p. 5.

ing years conducted by Professor Robinson, at Andover. He remained sole editor of these combined periodicals, from January, 1834, to January, 1838. The American Biblical Repository was the name given to this work from 1837 to 1851. Six years after Mr. Edwards withdrew from it, he became the principal editor of the Bibliotheca Sacra and Theological Review, and with the exception of two years, he had the chief care of this work from 1844 to 1852. One volume of the Bibliotheca Sacra had been published in New York, in 1843, by Professor Robinson, with the title, "Bibliotheca Sacra, or Tracts and Essays on Topics connected with Biblical Literature and Theology." In January, 1844, when Mr. Edwards became interested in the work, it was for the first time published at Andover. A new series was commenced on an enlarged and somewhat modified plan. In January, 1851, the old Biblical Repository was transferred from New York to Andover, and united with the Bibliotheca Sacra, so that this veteran editor was intrusted the second time with that review, which he had already done much to sustain and adorn. For twenty-three years he was employed in superintending our periodical literature; and, with the aid of several associates, he has left thirty-one octavo volumes as the monuments of his enterprise and industry in this onerous department. What man, living or dead, has ever expended so much labor upon our higher Quarterlies? A labor how severe and equally thankless!

He combined facility of execution with great painstaking and carefulness. He often compressed into a few brief sentences the results of an extended and prolonged research. In order to prepare himself for writing two or three paragraphs on geology, he has been known to read an entire and elaborate treatise on that science. His industry surprised men; for while he had two periodicals under his editorial care, he was often engaged in delivering lectures before the Athenæum or some lyceum in Boston or its suburbs, and in superintending the American reprints of English works. Besides attending to the proof-sheets of his own Quarterlies, he would sometimes correct more than a hundred pages, every week, of the proof-sheets of other volumes, and would often compose for them prefatory or explanatory notes. That he was immaculate in his supervision of the press, he would be the last one to pretend. The volumes which he edited contain unnumbered proper names, dates, numerals, references to initial letters, etc., etc. The labor of revising them was discouraging; their number increased the difficulty, and suggests a palliation for any errors which escaped him. He was pained by the smallest mistake which he made, yet deemed it his duty to suffer the pain, rather than intermit his efforts for the elevation of our periodical literature. Amid all the drudgery and perplexities of his editorial life, his rule was never to let a day pass by without refreshing his taste with the perusal of some lines from a favorite poet, such as Virgil, or Spenser.

In 1837, he was appointed Professor of the Hebrew Language, in the Theological Seminary at Andover, and in 1848, on the death of Prof. Stuart, he succeeded to the chair of Biblical Literature. In 1843, he united with Professors Felton and Sears, in the publication of "Classical Studies," and with Mr. S. H. Taylor, in translating Kühner's larger "Greek Grammar." To make his biblical teaching in Greek and Hebrew more valuable, he was a student of the Arabic, and other cognate languages.

In 1826, he aided in the compilation of a school-book designed for the moral improvement of the young. In 1832 and 1835, he published the "Eclectic Reader," and "Introduction to the Eclectic Reader," and his "Biography of Self-taught Men." While residing in Boston, he was an enthusiastic teacher in the Sabbath-school of Pine street church. In 1845, he was solicited to take the presidency of Amherst College. He was one of the founders of the Massachusetts Colonization Society, and for several years devoted much time to the "American Union for the Relief and Improvement of the Colored Race." After trying without success the renovating influence of travel at home and abroad, he died on the 2d of April, 1852.

XII. THE WISCONSIN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

WITH BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICES OF ITS PRESIDENTS.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

THE incipient measures for the organization of a State Association of Teachers in Wisconsin were taken by John G. McMynn, then Principal of Public Schools in Racine, seconded by Josiah L. Pickard, then Principal of Platteville Academy, Walter Van Ness, teacher at Fond du Lac, and others, and favored by the coöperation of Hon. A. P. Ladd, State Superintendent of Public Instruction. They met a few other earnest teachers at Madison, on the 12th, 13th, and 14th of July, 1853, when an organization was effected under the following Constitution:

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I. This Association shall be called *The Wisconsin Teachers' Association*, and shall have for its object the mutual improvement of its members, and the advancement of public education throughout the State.

ARTICLE II. The Association shall consist of persons engaged in teaching in this State, who shall pay one dollar annually. Honorary members may be elected at any annual meeting, who may, by the payment of the annual fee, become acting members.*

ARTICLE III. The officers of this Association shall be a President, three Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and a Board of five Counselors, who, with the President and Secretary, shall constitute an Executive Committee—any three of whom shall be a quorum—to be elected by ballot at each annual meeting.

ARTICLE IV. The duties of the President, Vice-President, Secretary and Treasurer shall be such as pertain to the same offices in similar associations.

ARTICLE V. The Executive Committee shall arrange business, procure lecturers for the same, and through the Secretary of the Association, who shall be, *ex-officio*, their Secretary, conduct such correspondence as may be deemed advisable. They shall also have power to call special meetings of the Association, to fill all vacancies occurring in the offices, and shall make to the Association an annual report of their proceedings.

ARTICLE VI. The annual meeting shall be held at such time and place as the Executive Committee may designate; and any five members, who shall meet at a regular or special meeting, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

ARTICLE VII. This Constitution may be amended at any annual meeting of the Association, by a vote of two-thirds of the members present.

To this Constitution the following names were appended as the

* This article was amended to its present form at the next meeting, having at first included persons not engaged in teaching.

original members :—J. L. Pickard, *Platteville;* W. Van Ness, *Fond du Lac;* J. L. Enos, *Madison;* R. O. Kellogg, *Appleton;* J. G. Mc Mynn, *Racine;* S. G. Stacy, *Madison;* J. H. Lathrop, (Chancellor of the State University,) *Madison;* and C. B. Goodrich, *Mineral Point.*

The officers elected for the year were as follows:

President,

JOHN G. McMYNN, Racine, Min.

Vice-Presidents,

J. L. PICKARD, Platteville. C. S. CHASE, Racine. J. L. ENOS, Madison.

Secretary,

W. VAN NESS, Fond du Lac.

Treasurer,

E. HODGES, Fond du Lac.

Counselors,

S. G. STACY, Madison. R. O. KELLOGG, Appleton.
C. B. GOODRICH, Mineral Point. J. T. MILLS, Lancaster.
C. CHILDS, Beloit.

THE SECOND MEETING, OR FIRST ANNIVERSARY, was held at Madison, on the 9th, 10th, and 11th days of August, 1854, under the officers elected as above-mentioned. The attendance from abroad was very small; few railroad facilities existed; the State was then rapidly settling; teachers were scattered and unacquainted with each other. Nevertheless the proceedings were spirited, and it was determined to persevere. Addresses were delivered by John G. McMynn, President, "*On the Condition and Modes of Improving Public Schools;*" E. Hodges, of Fond du Lac, on "*The Mission of our Public Schools,*" and J. L. Pickard, of Platteville, on "*The Relation of the Teacher to his Patron.*" Earnest discussions were held upon the subjects of the addresses and the need of an Educational Journal, Teachers' Institutes, and a State Normal School. A committee was appointed to memorialize the Legislature upon the educational wants of the State, and the coöperation of the State Superintendent, Hon. A. H. Wright, was sought.

These addresses, with the minutes of the session, were printed, and extensively circulated through the State.

THE THIRD ANNUAL MEETING, OR SECOND ANNIVERSARY, was held at Racine, commencing August 15, 1855, with an attendance of about 150, with a great increase of interest, and under the following officers elected in 1854:

President—John G. McMynn, of Racine; *Vice-Presidents*—C. B. Goodrich, of Mineral Point; R. O. Kellogg, of Appleton; and O. M. Conover, of Madison. *Secretary*—D. Y. Kilgore, of Madison. *Treasurer*—E. Hodges, of Fond du Lac. *Counselors*—J. L. Pickard, of Platteville; W. Van Ness, of Fond du Lac; C. Childs, of Beloit; J. W. Sterling and S. G. Stacy, of Madison.

The publication of a periodical entitled the "*Wisconsin Educational Journal*" had been maintained for some months, at Janesville, by Hon. James Sutherland, under the editorial care of George S. Dodge. The publication was now tendered to the Association, which was accepted, and a committee appointed to make the necessary arrangements. In March following was issued at Racine the first number of the publication, under the auspices of the Association, with the title

of the "Wisconsin Journal of Education," J. G. McMynn having been appointed editor. The publication in the new form has continued through eight volumes.

Resolutions were adopted after discussion, urging the Legislature to establish a "Reform School for Juvenile Offenders," and to make provision for "the gradation of schools in the cities and larger villages of the State." A Reform School has since been established, substantially as recommended, and both general and special enactments have been granted, which have facilitated the grading of schools.

Essays were read by R. O. Kellogg, Milwaukee, on "*The Teacher's Profession*," J. L. Pickard, Platteville, on "*The Proper Course of Studies to be pursued in Public Schools*," and J. G. McMynn, Racine, on "*The Best Means of Securing School Attendance.*"

Addresses were delivered by Rev. A. C. Barry, of Racine, on "*The Work of the Teacher;*" Horace Rublee, Esq., Madison, on "*The Office of the Teacher;*" Wm. A. White, Esq., on "*Education as Connected with the Development of the West,*" and George S. Dodge, Esq., Janesville, on "*The best means of elevating our Public Schools.*"

THE FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING, OR THIRD ANNIVERSARY, was held at Beloit, commencing August 20, 1856, with an attendance of about 175, and under the following officers:

President, J. L. PICKARD, Platteville; *Vice-Presidents*, W. VAN NESS, Fond du Lac; W. C. DUSTIN, Beloit; V. BUTLER, Kenosha; *Secretary*, D. Y. KILGORE; *Counselors*, J. G. MCMYNN, Racine; A. C. SPICER, Milton; A. J. CRAIG, Milwaukee; C. B. GOODRICH, Mineral Point; M. P. KINNEY, Racine.

Discussions were held upon the question of licensing teachers who habitually use tobacco, intoxicating drinks, and profane language; upon the "*Improvement needed in school architecture;*" and upon "*Normal Schools.*" A committee was appointed to report upon the last subject at the next meeting.

Addresses were delivered by the President, J. L. Pickard, upon "*Trials in Teaching;*" and by Prof. J. Emerson, of Beloit College, on "*History—its office in the Work of Education.*"

THE FIFTH MEETING, OR FOURTH ANNIVERSARY, was held at Waukesha, commencing August 12, 1857. The attendance was about two hundred, and the officers were as follows:

President—A. C. SPICER, Milton. *Vice-Presidents*—M. P. KINNEY, Racine; F. W. FISK, Beloit; D. Y. KILGORE, Madison. *Secretary*, A. A. GRIFFITH, Waukesha. *Treasurer*—J. G. MCMYNN, Racine. *Counselors*—J. L. PICKARD, Platteville; F. C. POMEROY, Milwaukee; A. C. BARRY, Sylvania; A. PICKETT, Oshkosh; H. W. COLLINS, Janesville.

A Report was made in behalf of the committee appointed at the previous meeting, on the "Necessity of Normal Schools," (and other improvements in the general school system of the State,) by A. Pickett, of Horicon. An earnest but indecisive discussion arose, and a Committee, consisting of Messrs. Pickett, Pradt and Griffith was appointed to report further at the next meeting.

Reports were read by Rev. J. B. Pradt, Sheboygan, on "*Instruction in Christian Morality in Public Schools;*" Mrs. Walker, Racine, on "*Methods of Teaching;*" D. J. Holmes, Sheboygan, on "*The Best Method of Securing Regular and Punctual Attendance at School;*" and A. A. Griffith, Waukesha, on "*Reading,*" with illustrations.

Addresses were delivered by A. C. Spicer, (President's opening,) on "*Dignity of the Teacher's Profession*;" J. G. McMynn, Racine, on "*Aims of the Educator*;" Prof. J. B. Turner, Ill., on "*Knowledge and Wisdom*;" N. C. Calkins, New York city, on "*The School of Former Days, Contrasted with the School of the Present Time*;" D. Y. Kilgore, Madison, on "*What Constitutes a Teacher*," and Prof. D. Read, Madison, on "*Importance of the Study of Civil Polity in Common Schools.*"

Resolutions affirming an equality of school privileges to the female sex—the adoption of a system of exchange of maps, drawings, &c., between schools, and an exclusion of children under six years of age from school, were discussed and passed.

THE SIXTH MEETING, OR FIFTH ANNIVERSARY, was held at Portage, commencing August 8th, 1858, with attendance of 250 members. The officers were:

President, O. M. CONOVER, Madison; *Vice-Presidents*, Col. M. FRANK, Kenosha; R. C. PARSONS, Mineral Point; *Secretary*, J. W. STRONG, Beloit; *Treasurer*, J. G. MCMYNN, Racine; *Counselors*, A. J. CRAIG, Palmyra; D. Y. KILGORE, Madison; J. B. PRADT, Sheboygan; F. C. POMEROY, Milwaukee; A. A. GRIFFITH, Waukesha.

A report by A. Pickett, of Horicon, in behalf of the Committee on the revision of the School Law was adopted. The provisions recommended were in substance, the following:

1. The union of the districts of each town, village, or city, under one Board, each local district electing a member of the Board, and this Board to have the power of establishing schools of different grades as required, and to elect a secretary, who should be ex-officio Inspector or Superintendent of Schools.

2. The inspectors of the several Union districts of each county, or other territory designated for that purpose, to form a County Board of Education, and to appoint a Superintendent for the county, or other territory forming a Superintendent district.

3. The several superintendents of the State thus appointed to constitute a State Board of Education, of whom the State Superintendent should be President, and the Chancellor of the University and the Principals of Normal Schools ex-officio members.

Rev. J. B. Pradt, of Sheboygan, in behalf of the same committee, reported upon the separate subject of Normal Schools, concluding with the following plan of normal instruction, which was adopted:

1st. Model instruction in a model school connected with the high school of each town or other high school district, together with suitable encouragement to pupils who aspire to become teachers.

2d. Efforts at self-improvement, in town associations of teachers, assembling weekly at the central school, under the direction of the Principal of the High School.

3d. Semi-annual institutes, held under the direction of County Superintendents, and aided by the State.

4th. An itinerant Normal faculty, who, in conjunction with the County Superintendents, shall give instruction to the institutes.

5th. Normal Academies, furnishing a disciplinary course of instruction, but aiming especially to impart both the general and technical ability to teach.

6th. A Normal School proper, as a State institution, and forming one of the several schools that make up a complete university.

Resolutions were adopted, favoring the general introduction of music, and in-

during the recommendation of Hon. L. C. Draper, State Superintendent, that the Bible be used in the public schools.

Essays were read by S. H. Carpenter, Assistant State Superintendent, on "*Education a Mental Possession*;" A. M. May, Ripon, on "*Phonetics*;" J. W. Strong, Beloit, on "*Vocal Music in Common Schools*;" and J. W. Hoyt, Madison, on "*Public Education—the Need of the People and the Duty of the State.*"

Addresses were delivered by Prof. O. M. Conover, President, on "*A Perfect School System*;" Rev. A. L. Chapin, D. D., Beloit College, on "*The True End of the Work of Education, and the Reciprocal Relations of its Different Departments*;" and Prof. N. Bateman, Illinois, on "*School Government.*"

THE SEVENTH MEETING, OR SIXTH ANNIVERSARY was held at Madison on the 26th, 27th, 28th, and 29th days of July, 1859, under the following officers:

President, A. PICKETT, Horicon; *Vice-Presidents*, J. E. MUNGER, Oshkosh; T. C. BARDEN, Portage City; W. C. SANDFORD, Beloit; *Secretary*, J. W. STRONG, Beloit; *Treasurer*, J. C. PICKARD, Madison; *Counselors*, J. B. PRADT, Sheboygan; J. JOHNSON, Janesville; A. J. CRAIG, Palmyra; S. T. LOCKWOOD, Burlington; A. W. MAY, Ripon.

The attendance upon this meeting was unprecedentedly large, amounting to 350 teachers, very unusual interest being excited by the presence of Hon. Henry Barnard, LL. D., his inauguration as Chancellor of the State University, and his announcement of his plan of operations as Agent of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools. Discussions were held upon the revision of the school laws, and upon moral instruction in schools—the former following a report on that subject by Rev. J. B. Pradt, in behalf of the standing committee.

Essays were read by Miss E. L. Bissell, Prairie du Chien, on "*Female Education*;" E. P. Larkin, Milwaukee, on "*Moral Culture*;" E. C. Johnson, Fond du Lac, on "*Mental Culture*;" and Rev. M. P. Kinney, Racine, on "*Religious Instruction.*"

Addresses were delivered by A. Pickett, President's Opening, on "*Nature of the Teacher's Work*;" Prof. J. D. Butler, of the State University, on "*The Classics*;" and Prof. Daniels, State Geologist, on "*Physical Geography and Geology.*"

Chancellor Barnard also addressed the Association, explaining his relation to the public schools of the State, as agent of the Board of Normal Regents, and stating what he hoped to accomplish through lectures and Teachers' Institutes, if supported by the hearty coöperation of teachers and friends of education.

Resolutions were adopted of welcome, and pledging coöperation to the new Chancellor of the University, and agent of the Normal Regents—in favor of the study of the classics and the German language, and of a systematic and comprehensive course of instruction in the public schools, from the primary schools to the university—of the daily use of the Bible—the employment of female teachers with equal pay when equally well qualified—and the formation of county or town Teachers' Associations, and recommending the American Journal of Education.

THE EIGHTH MEETING, OR SEVENTH ANNIVERSARY, was held at Milwaukee the 1st, 2d, and 3d days of August, with an attendance of 250, under the following officers:

President, Rev. J. B. PRADT, Madison; *Vice-Presidents*, Rev. M. P. KINNEY, Racine; GEORGE GALE, Trempealeau; J. J. MCINTIRE, Berlin; *Secretary*, JAMES

H. MAGOFFIN, Portage; *Treasurer*, E. S. GREEN, Waukesha; *Counselors*, A. J. CRAIG, Palmyra; E. C. JOHNSON, Fond du Lac; J. L. PICKARD, Platteville; E. P. LARKIN, Milwaukee; T. J. CONATTY, Kenosha.

A Report was read by Prof. H. Magoffin, Portage, on behalf of a committee, on the history of the Association during the first seven years of its existence.

An essay was read by Mr. H. S. Zoller, Portage, on "*The Necessity of Moral Instruction*," and one, prepared by Mrs. J. W. Hoyt, of Madison, on the "*Horticultural Embellishment of School-House Grounds.*"

Addresses were delivered by Rev. J. B. Pradt, President, on "*Self-Control the End of Education;*" D. S. Wentworth, Chicago, on "*School Discipline;*" Prof. Aug. Kursteiner, Milwaukee, on "*Physical Education;*" Prof. S. A. Bean, Waukesha, on "*Language;*" and Rev. R. Parks, President of Racine College, on the "*English Language.*"

Resolutions were discussed and adopted in favor of an extension of the system of public instruction; of County superintendency and a higher standard of qualification in teachers; and recognizing the ability of the Teachers' Institutes held by the agent of the Normal Regents last year, and pledging coöperation in carrying out the plans.

THE NINTH MEETING, OR EIGHTH ANNIVERSARY, was held in Fond du Lac, on the 30th and 31st days of July, and the 1st and 2d days of August, 1861, with an attendance of 275, under the following officers:

President, A. J. CRAIG, of Madison; *Vice-Presidents*, W. C. WHITFORD, Milton; T. J. CONATTY, Kenosha; S. D. GAYLORD, Oshkosh; *Secretary*, S. H. PEABODY, Fond du Lac; *Treasurer*, J. B. PRADT, Madison; *Counselors*, J. B. MASON, La Crosse; S. H. WARREN, Hazel Green; A. PICKETT, Horicon; Miss M. S. MERRILLE, Fond du Lac; Miss JENNIE S. JOSELYN, Platteville.

The exercises were this year in part of a practical character, like those at Teachers' Institutes, and were conducted by several leading teachers of the State, assisted by W. H. Wells, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, and A. S. Welch, Principal of the Michigan Normal School.

Essays were read by L. H. Warren, Darlington, on "*Primary Instruction;*" and J. Ford, Milwaukee, on "*Object Teaching.*"

Addresses and lectures were delivered by A. J. Craig, President, on "*The Progress of Education in the State During the Year;*" J. G. McMynn on "*The Qualifications of Primary Teachers;*" Hon. H. C. Hickok, ex-State Superintendent of Pennsylvania, on "*Educational Agencies;*" Hon. W. H. Wells, Chicago, on "*The Science of Teaching;*" A. S. Welch, Prin. Mich. Normal School, on "*Conversation;*" Hon. H. Seymour, of New York, on the "*Importance of the Common School;*" and Hon. J. L. Pickard, on the "*Importance of the Teacher's Work.*"

Resolutions, approving the creation of the office of County Superintendent, and the choice of practical educators to fill the same—in favor of maintaining a high standard of attainment in the science and method of teaching, as well as thorough elementary knowledge of studies, in candidates for teaching—of maintaining the appropriations for schools in spite of the pecuniary embarrassments of the country—and the establishment of a class of primary schools for very small and backward children, were discussed and passed.

THE TENTH MEETING, OR NINTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE ASSOCIATION, was

held in Janesville on the 29th, 30th, and 31st days of July, and the 1st day of August, 1862, with an attendance of 300, under the following officers:

President, JONATHAN FORD of Milwaukee; *Vice-Presidents*, R. Z. MASON, Appleton; J. E. PILLSBURY, Mineral Point; J. J. M. ANGEAR, Berlin; *Secretary*, S. H. PEABODY, Fond du Lac; *Treasurer*, J. B. PRADT, Madison; *Counselors*, S. D. GAYLORD, Oshkosh; S. H. PEABODY, Fond du Lac; R. L. REED, Watertown; J. MCALISTER, Milwaukee; A. PICKETT, Horicon.

Practical "Institute" exercises were introduced to considerable extent as at the last meeting, and the occasion was rendered one of new interest from the sessions, alternating with those of the Association, of the primary meeting of the County Superintendents.

An essay was read by Hon. J. L. Pickard, on "*High Schools a Necessary Part of our Public System*;" and lectures were given by Prof. J. B. M. Sill, of Mich. Normal School, on *English Grammar*; Hon. J. M. Gregory, State Supt. Michigan, on "*Graded Schools*;" Prof. E. S. Carr, of the State University, on "*Chemistry and Geology*;" and by Prof. J. Blaisdell, of Beloit College, on "*Arnold as a Teacher*."

Addresses were delivered by J. Ford, President, on "*The Independent Teachers*;" Hon. M. Bateman, Supt. of Pub. Ins., Ill., on "*National Education*;" and Hon. J. M. Gregory, Supt. Pub. Ins., Mich., on "*Education and Destiny*."

No discussions were held or resolutions passed at this meeting upon educational topics, except by the Convention of County Superintendents.

THE ELEVENTH MEETING, OR TENTH ANNIVERSARY, was held at Kenosha, on the 28th, 29th, 30th, and 31st days of July, 1863, with an attendance of 250, under the following officers:

President, S. H. PEABODY, Fond du Lac; *Vice-Presidents*, N. E. GOLDTHWAITE, Fox Lake; Miss ADAH F. PEARSON, Janesville; Mrs. H. S. ZOLLER, Racine; *Secretary*, S. T. LOCKWOOD, Janesville; *Treasurer*, Rev. J. B. PRADT, Madison; *Counselors*, A. J. CHENEY, Delavan: B. A. BARLOW, Albion; J. K. PURDY, Fort Atkinson; S. D. GAYLORD, Oshkosh.

The occasion was again rendered interesting by the sessions, in connection with the Association, of the Second Convention of the County Superintendents, and practical exercises were also again introduced.

Essays were read by G. H. Hascall, of Battle Creek, Mich., on "*Physical Education*;" F. C. Pomeroy, Milwaukee, on "*Mental Arithmetic*;" S. T. Lockwood, on "*Sports Suitable for School Grounds*;" and one by Hon. J. L. Pickard, entitled "*Bird's Eye View of the Profession*."

Addresses were delivered by S. H. Peabody, President, on "*Educational Landmarks*;" Prof J. Emerson, D. D., of Beloit College, on "*Popular Education*;" Pres. R. Edwards, of Ill. Normal University, on "*The Influence of Teaching upon the Character of the Teacher*;" Hon. J. D. Philbrick, of Boston, on the *Self-Education of Teachers*;" and Col. J. G. McMynn, of Racine, on the "*Relation of Teachers to the Present State of the Country*."

Discussions were conducted by the Convention of County Superintendents, some other persons participating, upon "*School Attendance*," "*Test of Ability to Teach*," and "*School Visitation*."

A report was presented by Rev. J. B. Pradt, on behalf of the committee on the "Revision of the School Laws," concluding with the following resolutions,

which were adopted after discussion, with the exception of the 9th section of the first resolution:

I. *Resolved*, That in the judgment of this Association the proper efficiency of our Public School system requires:

1. A plan of Town Organization of the schools.
2. The general introduction, as far as practicable, of graded schools.
3. More attention to school architecture, and a better supply of school apparatus.
4. The carrying out of the intention of the Constitution in regard to school libraries.
5. More earnest and systematic attention to the physical, æsthetic, moral, and religious training of children in the schools, as well as more enlightened methods of instruction and intellectual development.
6. The appropriation of aid by the State to the holding of Teachers' Institutes.
7. The establishment of a series of Normal Schools, and the division of the State for this purpose into Normal School Districts, and the appointment of Normal Superintendents over those districts, who shall also constitute a State Board of Education.
8. The establishment of a grade of permanent or professional teachers' certificates, to be granted to graduates of Normal Schools, and to others who pass the requisite examination.
9. The selection of County Superintendents from the number of those who hold such certificates, or equivalent credentials.
10. The establishment of a Polytechnic Institution for the promotion of agriculture and other industrial pursuits, with provision for military education.

Resolved, That a committee be appointed, whose duty it shall be to bring these measures before the Legislature, in such a manner and at such times as they shall deem most proper, and as they shall be instructed by the Association.

Resolved, That the County and City Superintendents be requested to coöperate with the committee in circulating petitions to the Legislature to grant such acts as they may deem desirable from time to time.

The following resolutions were also adopted:

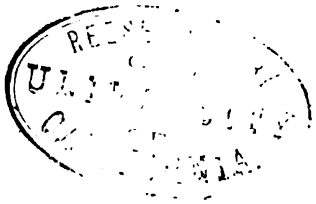
Resolved, That while we miss from our annual session many who have been wont to meet with us, we are proud of their self-sacrificing patriotism and devotion to the country; that we have heard with pride of their deeds of heroic bravery on the battle-field; that we send to the living to-day a meed of praise from swelling hearts, and that the dead are embalmed forever in our memories.

Resolved, That we as citizens, and especially as educators, feel it our imperative duty to support the Administration under its present trying circumstances, and to instil into the minds of the youth intrusted to our care the most unswerving patriotism and love for our noble Republic.

THE TWELFTH MEETING will be held at the call of the Executive Committee, under the following officers elected in 1863:

President, C. H. ALLEN, Madison; *Vice-Presidents*, S. T. LOCKWOOD, Janesville; Miss M. A. MERRILLE, Fond du Lac; Miss F. C. SUTHERLAND, Monroe; *Secretary*, A. J. CHENEY, Delevan; *Treasurer*, J. B. PRADT, Madison; *Counselors*, A. PICKETT, Horicon; I. STONE, Kenosha; S. D. GAYLORD, Sheboygan; A. D. HENDRICKSON, Waukesha.

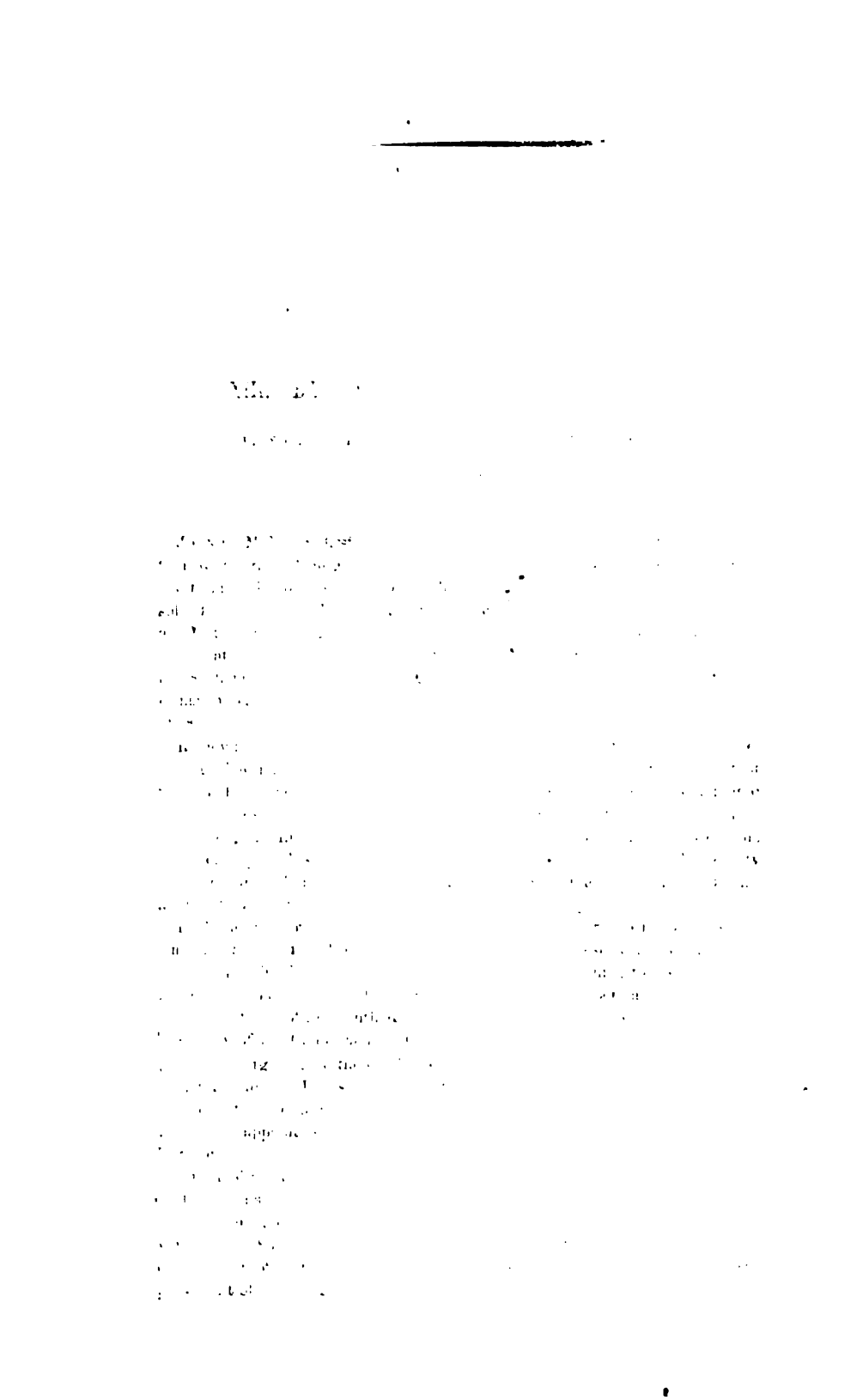
NOTE.—The preceding sketch was condensed from a History of the Association read at the Eighth Annual Meeting, and from the published proceedings.





Yours truly
Jno. G. McMynn

ENGRAVED FOR BARNARD'S AM. JOURNAL OF EDUCATION





XIII. BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

PRESIDENTS OF THE WISCONSIN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

JOHN G. McMYNN.

JOHN G. McMYNN, first President of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association, was born in Montgomery county, N. Y., in 1824, and was left at an early age to make his own way in the world. While yet a lad, upon a farm, he resolved to secure a collegiate education, which he accomplished, but with many a difficulty and struggle. He began classical studies, with a fair English education, at Union village, Washington county, N. Y., and in two years entered the Sophomore class of Williams College, in 1845. Having spent three winter terms in teaching in New York, Vermont, and Massachusetts, he graduated in 1848.

Removing to Wisconsin, Mr. McMynn commenced the study of law; but believing that he could be more useful as a teacher, he engaged again in that work at Kenosha; and, during five years' labor, laid the foundation and reared much of the superstructure of her excellent system of graded schools—the first in Wisconsin. In 1853, he took charge of the High School at Racine, where the same energy and success characterized his labors—the schools of that city obtaining under him and his coadjutor, Rev. A. P. Kinney, the superintendent, a reputation extending far beyond the State.

In 1859, he carried out a long cherished design of a trip to Europe, visiting England, Scotland, and portions of the continent, and bestowing careful attention upon their educational and social condition. Returning to Racine, he remained in charge of the High School till 1861, but soon after entered the service as Major of the Tenth Regiment of Wisconsin Infantry, forming part of the Army of the Cumberland. Rising to the command of the regiment, he enjoyed in a large degree the confidence and esteem of his superiors, among them Generals Mitchell, Rousseau, and Harris. After two years' service he resigned, on account of the ill-health of his wife, and has recently declined, for the same reason, an appointment as Superintendent of Indian Affairs for Washington Territory.

Mr. McMynn was the editor of the "Wisconsin Journal of Education," (the State patronage for which he secured) from its commencement in March, 1856, till September, 1857; has been a member of the Board of Regents of the University; in 1863 was appointed Agent of the Board of Normal Regents for the examination of Normal Classes in the State; and has recently received the appointment of Principal of the Normal School at Winona, in Minnesota.

JOSIAH L. PICKARD.

JOSIAH LITTLE PICKARD, the second President of the Association, was the eldest son of Samuel and Sarah Pickard, and was born in Rowley, March 17, 1824. His preparation for college was at the Academy in Lewiston, Maine, studying winters and working during the summers upon his father's farm. Entering Bowdoin College the second term of the Sophomore year, he graduated in 1844. He had taught a public school in Minot, Maine, in the winter of 1842–3; and immediately after leaving college, took charge of North Conway Academy in N. H., where he remained till December, 1845. He then removed to Elizabeth, Jo.-Davies county, Illinois, and in November 1846, to Platteville, Grant county, Wisconsin, where he took charge of a newly organized academy, and remained till December, 1859, a period of thirteen years.

Mr. Pickard opened the Academy at Platteville in 1846, with five students, and left it with an attendance of nearly two hundred; and in all, more than twelve hundred different pupils were under his instruction, a large number pursuing the regular course of study; while the institution has also long been a nursery of teachers for the common schools. But a severe attack of illness in 1859, followed by prostration of the nervous system, compelled a change of occupation. Accepting, therefore, a nomination for the office of State Superintendent of Schools, he was elected in November, 1859, and entered upon his duties on the first of January following. It was his hope that a temporary release from the confinement of the school-room might restore his former sound and vigorous health; but impaired eyesight, pronounced by oculists to proceed from incurable amaurosis, and to require an active out-door life and work, forbade a return to teaching. He has continued in his present position four years, and has recently been a third time elected—the best evidence of the success and acceptance with which he has discharged the duties of his office. Although he had not been engaged to any great extent in the public schools, yet he had learned to consider attentively their wants while preparing large numbers of his students for their work as teachers, and entered upon his present duties with a degree of professional fitness not always found in similar officers. Leaving much of the sedentary work of the office to his able assistant, Mr. A. J. Craig, he has labored much more than any former incumbent in its outward work, particularly in institutes, conventions, associations, and public addresses, and with an effect most beneficial to the interests of education.

AMBROSE C. SPICER.

AMBROSE COATES SPICER, the third President of the Association, was born in Independence, Allegany county, New York, July 31, 1820. Reared in a newly settled and "lumbering region," his early advantages for education were quite limited; and, after the age of twelve, he was inured to hard labor. But determined upon improvement and usefulness, the first summer of his majority found him laboring on the excavation for the Genesee Valley canal to earn the means of attending the academy at Alfred, in his native county, in the autumn. Too close application to study brought on failure of health and of eyesight; but recovering, and renewing study in the academy, with frequent alternations of labor, teaching his first school in 1843–4, (and several winters afterwards,) and finally assisting in the academy, he entered the Junior class of Oberlin College,

Ohio, in 1818. After more interruptions from ill-health, and two intervals of teaching, the last in Deruyter Institute, N. Y., he graduated at Union College, in 1850. Removing soon after to Wisconsin, he taught several terms in the Academy at Milton, then in the Janesville Wesleyan Seminary, and returning to Milton, remained in the Academy there four years. While thus employed, he was active in procuring the passage of a bill by the Legislature of Wisconsin, appropriating twenty-five per cent. of the income of the swamp and overflowed lands donated by Congress, to the aid of Normal Schools and institutions maintaining "normal classes," and was twice appointed one of the "Board of Regents," to manage and disburse the fund thus set apart. He returned to his native county in New York with impaired health in 1858, and taught from time to time, as he was able, in Rushford Academy and the Wellesville Union School, and rendered some assistance in Alfred Academy, now Alfred University. Removing again to Wisconsin in 1863, he took charge of the Walworth Academy, Walworth county.

O. M. CONOVER.

O. M. CONOVER, the fourth President of the Association, was born in Dayton, Ohio, October 7, 1825. His early education was in the schools, and especially in the "Old Academy," of his native city, of which latter, Mr. E. E. Barney was, at that period, the skillful and accomplished instructor—one who anticipated and practiced many of the recent improvements in education His subsequent classical training preparatory to college was in the same academy, and principally under Rev. Frederic Snyder. Both these gentlemen were graduates of Union College, the latter taking his degree with high honor. Mr. Conover entered the Junior class of the Miami University, Ohio, in 1842; but becoming dissatisfied with the character of that institution, he entered the next year the college of New Jersey, at Princeton, where he graduated in 1844. The next two years were spent in teaching, first near Lexington, Ky., and afterward in the academy of his native place. In 1846, he entered the Princeton Theological Seminary, and after three years' study, graduated in 1849. In 1850, he was appointed professor of ancient languages in the University of Wisconsin at Madison, and filled that chair very acceptably until 1858. Since that date, with the exception of eighteen months' service, in 1859 and 1860, as Principal of the High School, Madison, Wis., and of three months in 1861, filling a temporary vacancy in the Milton Academy, in the same state, Mr. Conover's pursuits have been disconnected with the work of education. He is now engaged in law-reporting for the Supreme Court of Wisconsin, and is likewise the State librarian.

AARON PICKETT.

AARON PICKETT, the fifth President of the Association, was born in Andover, Ashtabula county, Ohio, May 6, 1826. His parents were natives of Massachusetts, and had both been successful teachers. He was one of a numerous family, religiously and industriously reared, after the salutary New England manner, upon a large farm. Among his educational advantages beyond the family hearth-stone, he remembers with much gratitude and respect the instructions of an admirable teacher—one of a renowned family of teachers, of Jefferson, in his native county—Miss Flora Atkins. Mr. Pickett enjoyed for several years, at intervals, the advantages of Kingsville Academy, then in charge of Z. S. Graves,

since President of Winchester Female College, Tennessee. He first taught a district school in 1843, and for three successive winters. Five years were then spent, first in charge of the Academy at Nelson, and then of that in Windham, both in Portage county, Ohio, where, through excessive exertions, health failed, and a change of occupation was pronounced necessary. In 1853, Mr. Pickett removed to Winnebago county, Wisconsin. Finding his health improved, after a few months, by rural pursuits, he took charge for three winters of the public school in the village of Winneconne, then taught a term in the city of Oshkosh, and one in Racine. For the past seven years he has been principal of the Union school at Horicon, where his success and acceptance have been most flattering; the school, in its several departments, being one of the best in the State. As chairman of a standing committee of the State Teachers' Association on the "Revision of the School Laws" of the State, he has also rendered important service. During twenty years' teaching (seven only in the winter) Mr. Pickett has never but once punished with a blow that caused pain, and has passed several entire terms with no punishment beyond a reprimand. In connection with his brother, J. L. Pickett, he has written and published one edition of a treatise on English grammar.

JOHN B. PRADT.

JOHN B. PRADT, the sixth President of the Association, was born in Winchester, N. H., June 26, 1816. He was prepared for college when twelve years of age; but circumstances not allowing him to enter, he enjoyed further advantages of private study and instruction, alternated with other occupations, including some months not unprofitably spent in a printing office; and after two years spent in the study of law, chose the sacred ministry as his profession. Having passed through the usual three years' course of theological study, he was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church, in Vermont, in 1838. He made his first attempt at teaching while a law student, in 1829–30, in Rockingham, Vt., and taught three winters and three terms of select school in Vermont, and two winters in New Hampshire. Removing to Pennsylvania in 1842, he taught five terms, in 1843–4, in the Coudersport Academy, and in 1845, one term of a select school at Jersey Shore. In 1854, being then again resident in Vermont, he was invited to return to Pennsylvania and fill the newly created office of County Superintendent in the county of Potter. Accepting the invitation, he remained in the place till 1856, when he removed to Wisconsin. Just before removing West, he was appointed principal of the normal school at Millersville, Lancaster county, Pa. In Wisconsin, Mr. Pradt was one year principal of the Union school at Sheboygan, in 1859–60, and for four years past has been the resident editor of the "Wisconsin Journal of Education." In 1862, he was examiner of the "normal classes" of the State, and for some years past has been a member of a standing committee of the State Teachers' Association on the revision of the school laws, and in that capacity has made three reports to that body.

A. J. CRAIG.

A. J. CRAIG, the seventh President of the Association, was born in Orange county, N. Y., November 11, 1823, and received his early education in the common schools, but, like many an American youth, continued successfully a

work of self-improvement in scientific and classical study. He resided in western New York till 1843, when he removed to Wisconsin. Occasionally spending his winters in teaching until 1864, he was then appointed Principal of the Fourth Ward Public School in Milwaukee, where he remained two years. In 1857, he became resident editor of the "Wisconsin Journal of Education," and continued such for a term of nearly three years. In January, 1860, he was appointed assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction. As editor and superintendent, Mr. Craig has rendered important services to the cause of public education in his adopted State. In 1859, he was a member of the Lower House of the State Legislature, and was chairman of the Committee on Education. Here, in behalf of the State Teachers' Association, he brought forward and advocated important improvements in the school system of the State.

JONATHAN FORD.

JONATHAN FORD, the eighth President of the Association, was born in Broome county, N. Y., in 1814, and was the son of a Presbyterian clergyman, who was settled for several years at Elmira. Mr. Ford graduated at Williams College with the class of 1839. Subsequently he had charge for two years of an academy at Claverack, N. Y., and for eight years was Principal of the academy at Hudson. After his removal to Wisconsin, Mr. Ford was Principal of one of the ward schools in the city of Milwaukee, and served a term (1859–60) as Superintendent of the Public Schools of that city. To this position he brought not only educational skill and experience, but efficient business habits.

SELIM H. PEABODY.

SELIM HOBART PEABODY, the ninth President of the Association, was born in Rockingham, Vt., August 20, 1829. His father, though engaged in other occupations, was also an ingenious and successful teacher in the winter schools, and from him his son received much of his early education. Deprived of his father at the age of thirteen, he was enabled, through the kindness of a gentleman in Boston, to attend the public Latin school in that city for a season; but his preparation for college was effected principally while paying his own way by his own exertions. He taught his first school in the winter of 1847–8, at Lowell, Mass.; his second, in Braintree; and after assisting the Principal of Nashua Academy, N. H., during the summer of 1848, entered the University of Vermont, at Burlington, in the Fall. Still teaching winters, and through his Junior year assisting in the High School of Burlington, but maintaining his rank in college, he graduated honorably in 1852, with a more than ordinary proficiency in mathematical studies. Immediately afterward, he was appointed Principal of Burlington High School; and, in the next year, accepted the professorship of mathematics in the New Hampton Seminary, Fairfax, Vt., and in 1854, that of mathematics and civil engineering in the Polytechnic College of Philadelphia. He remained in this institution three years, performing, in addition to his own duties, the kindred ones of the departments of mechanics and of mining, when failing health, as well as inadequate compensation compelled resignation. He removed to Wisconsin in 1859, and after some time spent in the north-west part of the State in the survey and sale of lands for the United States Government, he took charge of the High School at Fond du Lac with such success that he was called, in 1862, to Racine, where, as Principal of the

High School and General Superintendent, he well maintains the excellence which the schools of that city attained under Mr. McMynn. As President of the Association, he delivered, in 1863, an address, which presented a timely and well-considered outline of the needs and proper organization of a State Industrial College.

CHARLES H. ALLEN.

CHARLES H. ALLEN, the tenth President of the Association, was born in Mansfield, Tioga County, Pa., Feb. 11, 1828, but spent his youth in Hampshire county, Mass., receiving the benefits of a common school education till the age of fifteen. Removing to Jamestown, Chatauqua county, N. Y., he attended an academy for a short time, but his coveted course of study was interrupted by a protracted illness. Recovering, his inclination induced him to commence learning a mechanical trade; but being unexpectedly called to the charge of a school in 1845–6, he evinced such aptitude for the work, that his services were afterward in frequent requisition. After two years' teaching, he commenced holding, during his vacations, teachers' schools or institutes with much success. Health becoming again impaired, he was principally occupied for some years in surveying, teaching, however, in the meantime, a few terms, with his brother, in the Academy at Smithport, Mc Kean county, Pennsylvania, and assisting his old instructor, Rev. J. B. Pradt, at institutes in the county of Potter. In 1857, Mr. Allen again joined his brother, F. A. Allen, in teaching, in the Normal School at Westchester, Pa. The next year he was employed by Dr. Henry Barnard to spend his Fall vacation in the series of institutes which he had organized in Wisconsin, and fulfilling successfully the engagement, he was permanently employed in the same work, and in that of examining the "normal classes" in the several institutions of the State. Upon the resignation by Dr. Barnard of his labors in Wisconsin, Mr. Allen continued his work as agent of the Normal Board till 1863, when he was appointed Professor of the Normal Department of the State University, having conducted during the previous year a private normal and high school in the city of Madison. The re-opening of the Normal Department of the State University under Prof. Allen has proved very successful, and much is expected from his labors there.

XIV. COUNTY EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

I. SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF THE COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX, CONN.

The School Association of the County of Middlesex, Conn., was in existence in May, 1799, and how long before we have not ascertained. It was probably the growth of the discussion which the disposition of the *Western Reserve* lands created in the Legislature and among the people between the years 1796 and 1799. The following "code" for the Government and Instruction of Common Schools, drawn up by the Rev. William Woodbridge, (father of William C. Woodbridge, the geographer and educator,) President of the Association, and, at that date, Principal of a Female School in Middletown was addressed by this Association, to the Visitors and Overseers of schools:

REGULATIONS FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF SCHOOLS.

In the acknowledgment of all men of goodness, policy, or wisdom, the proper education of youth is an object of the first importance to society. It is the source of private virtue and public prosperity, and demands the best practical system of instruction, aided by the united exertions and patronage of the wise and good. From a solicitude to promote this very interesting and most important object, the following regulations are respectfully submitted to the consideration of the Visitors and Overseers of Schools—by the *School Association of the County of Middlesex.*

Instructors and scholars shall punctually attend their schools, in due season, and the appointed number of hours.

The whole time of instructors and scholars shall be entirely devoted to the proper business and duties of the school.

Every scholar shall be furnished with necessary books for his instruction. In winter, effectual provision ought to be made for warming the school-house in season, otherwise the forenoon is almost lost.

The Bible—in selected portions—or the New Testament, ought, in Christian schools, to be read by those classes who are capable of reading decently, at the opening of the school before the morning prayer. If this mode of reading be adopted, it will remove every objection of irreverence, and answer all the purposes of morality, devotion, and reading. Some questions may be very properly proposed and answered by the master or scholars; and five minutes, thus spent, would be a very profitable exercise of moral and other instruction.

Proper lessons, and fully within the scholar's power to learn, ought to be given to every class each part of the day. These daily lessons ought to be faithfully learned and recited to the master or his approved monitors.

One lesson in two or more days may be a review of the preceding lessons of those days; and one lesson in each week a review of the studies of that week.

The sum of this review, fairly written or noted in the book studied, may be carried by the scholars, each Saturday, to their respective parents or guardians.

Scholars equal in knowledge ought to be classed. Those whose progress merits advancement should rise to a higher class; and those who decline by negligence, should be degraded every month.

The hours of school ought, as much as possible, to be appropriated in the following or a similar manner, viz:

In the morning, the Bible may be delivered to the head of each class, and by them to the scholars capable of reading decently or looking over. This reading, with some short remarks or questions, with the morning prayer, may occupy the *first half hour*. The second may be employed in hearing the morning lessons, while the younger classes are preparing to spell and read. The third in attention to the writers. The fourth in hearing the under classes read and spell. The fifth in looking over and assisting the writers and cipherers. The sixth in hearing the under classes spell and read the second time; and receiving and depositing pens, writing and reading books.

In all exercises of reading, the teacher ought to pronounce a part of the lessons, giving the scholars a correct example of accent and emphasis, pauses, tones, and cadence. In all studies, the scholars ought to be frequently and critically observed. The teacher's eye on all his school is the great preservative of diligence and order.

In the afternoon, one half hour may be employed in spelling together, repeating grammar, rules of arithmetic, and useful tables, with a clear and full, but soft voice, while the instructor prepares pens, writing-books, &c. The second and third half hours in hearing the under classes, and assisting the writers and cipherers. The fourth in hearing the upper classes read. The fifth in hearing the under classes read and spell the second time. The sixth in receiving and depositing the books, &c., as above.

That the school be closed with an evening prayer, previous to which the scholars shall repeat a psalm or hymn—and also the Lord's prayer.

Saturday may be wholly employed in an orderly review of the studies of the week, except one hour appropriated to instruction in the first principles of religion and morality, and in repeating together the ten commandments. That the catechism usually taught in schools be divided by the master into four sections, one of which shall be repeated successively on each Saturday.

Any unavoidable failure of the master in the time of attendance on school ought to be made up by him. Absence of the scholar ought to be noted for inquiry.

Parents should aid and encourage the scholars in studying proper lessons at home, especially in winter evenings, which are the better part of the day. For slow will be the progress of the scholar without the aid and encouragement of the parent.

To these regulations there is, in equity, an equal right of appeal to the overseers of schools, both for parents and teachers, in all matters of dispute. It appears indispensably necessary that a proper system of school regulations should be delivered both to parents and teachers; and also to be frequently read, explained, inculcated, and urged upon the scholars.

The teacher becoming accountable to the parents and overseers for the faithful instruction of his school, has a right to expect—First, due support in government from both—Second, proper books of instruction and morality, manners and learning—Third, the steady and punctual attendance of his scholars, and diligence in their studies. Failure on one part can never be entitled to fulfillment on the other.

That there be opened, in every school, a register containing the following records, viz.:

1st. Time of entrance, continuance, and departure of each scholar and master.

2d. The names of all whose example in good manners and orderly conduct, have been beneficial to the school, which shall stand on the honorable list during the continuance of their good character and conduct.

3d. The names of the three best scholars in every class and branch of learning at the end of each half year.

4th. The names and crimes of every one who is guilty of lying, stealing, inde-

cency, fighting, or Sabbath-breaking. These, on evidence of reformation, shall be erased.

5th. That a record be kept of all the names and donations of those who shall generously give prizes or books for the encouragement of learning and good manners.

That the virtuous and diligent may be encouraged and rewarded, and the vicious discountenanced and punished, this register shall be open to the parents and visitors of schools, and read on days of public examination.

A proper system of manners ought to be drawn up, suited to the age, situation, and connections of children in society. This will answer for a rule of duty, and appeal in all cases of trial. In all charges, the complainant shall ascertain the fact—the law broken—the reason of the law—and the probable consequences to society—to the offender—the whole proving the duty and benevolent design of prosecution.

A short system of morality ought to be compiled for the particular use of children—illustrated by familiar examples, and applied to their particular rights and circumstances. "When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child."

Effectual measures ought to be taken to convince children that their whole conduct is the object of perpetual cognizance and inquiry in the parent and teacher, the minister of the gospel and the civil officers.

All instruction in morals and manners is most clearly illustrated and most effectually enforced by example. Consequently, good and evil examples are among the first of virtues and worst of vices in society, and ought to be punished or rewarded.

Books of reading and spelling, morality and manners, in general use, should be the property of the district and under the master's keeping, and by him to be delivered to the scholars; for the following reasons: 1. A much less number will answer. 2. They will be bought cheaper. 3. Kept better. 4. Better answer all purposes—for a class using any set at school may study in them at home. 5. Such a plan would encourage donations and furnish a school library for various and occasional reading.

All school laws and regulations should be clearly understood and frequently inculcated. Reason and rule should go together. Persuasion and encouragement should first be tried—admonition and caution may perhaps be proper in every instance for the first offense. Caution, reprimand, and assurance of the necessity of punishment *may* be sufficient for the second fault. But a *second crime* should *not* be passed over without evident proofs of inadvertence or true penitence. A third instance of deliberate breach of plain orders—of repeated faults or crimes—demands immediate chastisement. All punishments should be —1. Safe, and attended with instruction—the rod and reproof give wisdom. 2. Never given up until the offender is submissive and obedient. Necessity or prudence may oblige *us* to vary, *discontinue* or *delay* a punishment—but to give up would be the destruction of all government.

These, or similar regulations, gentlemen, we think indispensably necessary to the *well* being and general utility of schools. They are, therefore, with all due deference to your wisdom, respectfully presented to your consideration.

Middletown, May 7th, 1799.

XV. BOOK NOTICES.

SCHOOL ECONOMY. By James Pyle Wickersham, A. M., *Principal of the State Normal School*, Millersville, Penn. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1864. 366 pages.

This volume treats, in a very practical way, of

I. *The Preparation for the School*, including *School-Sites, School-Grounds, School-Houses, and Furniture* for schools of different grades—school apparatus and school records.

II. THE ORGANIZATION of the School, including the temporary and the permanent organization—seating, studies, classification, progress of exercises, &c.

III. THE EMPLOYMENTS of the School—objects, incentives and modes of study, and the characteristics of the student—objects, requisites, and methods of recitations—physical exercises.

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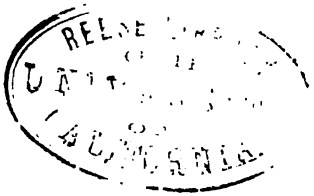
JOURNAL OF EDUCATION FOR LOWER CANADA. Vols. I to VII., 1857—1863.
JOURNAL DE L'INSTRUCTION PUBLIQUE. Volume I—VII., 1857—1863.

These two periodicals, in the English and French languages, making 14 quarto volumes, of over 200 large double-column octavo pages each, are among the results of the indefatigable and well directed activity of Hon. P. J. O. Chauveau, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Lower Canada from 1857 to 1863.

Dr. Chauveau, before accepting the post of Superintendent, made vacant by the resignation of Dr. J. B. Meilleur, had been member of the Canadian Parliament for eleven years, Solicitor General, and Secretary of the Province.

In the difficult and peculiar position of administering a system of public instruction over a population differing not only in nationality, but in language and religion, Dr. Chauveau has shown great wisdom, industry, and moderation, and been rewarded with great success. We shall in a subsequent number exhibit the history and condition of schools and education in the Province of Lower Canada, where Father Le Jeune opened a school before "Brother Purmont was entreated to become schoolmaster for the teaching and nurturing of children" in the town of Boston.

We hope, in our next number, to resume our former practice of giving a brief synopsis of the various educational documents and books sent to us by authors and publishers, as well as to chronicle more in detail the educational movements of different states and countries. We will gladly undertake the issue of a Quarterly Record of National Education, as the organ of various American, National, and State Associations, as has been suggested by correspondents, if the enterprise can be properly sustained.





Engraved by J. C. Buttre

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, for 1864, will be published on the 15th of March, June, September, and December, on the following
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IX. A



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☞ *Postage on the Number for Sept., paid in advance where delivered, 4 cents.*

THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 11.]

No. XXXVI.—SEPTEMBER, 1864.

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I. THE STATE AND EDUCATION.

THE RIGHT AND THE DUTY OF THE STATE TO ESTABLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

ENGLISH AUTHORITIES.

I hold that it is the right and duty of the State to provide for the education of the common people. I conceive the arguments by which this position may be proved are perfectly simple, perfectly obvious, and the most cogent possible. * * * All are agreed that it is the sacred duty of every government to take effectual measures for securing the persons and property of the community; and that the government which neglects that duty is unfit for its situation. This being once admitted, I ask, can it be denied that the education of the common people is the most effectual means of protecting persons and property? On that subject I can not refer to higher authority, or use more strong terms, than have been employed by Adam Smith; and I take his authority the more readily, because he is not very friendly to State interference; and almost on the same page as that I refer to, he declares that the State ought not to meddle with the education of the higher orders; but he distinctly says that there is a difference, particularly in a highly civilized and commercial community, between the education of the higher classes and the education of the poor. The education of the poor he pronounces to be a matter in which government is most deeply concerned; and he compares ignorance, spread through the lower classes, neglected by the State, to a leprosy, or some other fearful disease, and says that where this duty is neglected, the State is in danger of falling into the terrible disorder. He had scarcely written this than the axiom was fearfully illustrated in the riots of 1780. I do not know if from all history I could select a stronger instance of my position, when I say that ignorance makes the persons and property of the community unsafe, and that the government is bound to take measures to prevent that ignorance. On that occasion, what was the state of things? Without any shadow of a grievance, at the summons of a madman, 100,000 men rising in insurrection—a week of anarchy—Parliament beseiged—your predecessor, sir, trembling in the Chair—the Lords pulled out of their coaches—the Bishops flying over the tiles—not a sight, I trust, that would be pleasurable even to those who are now so unfavorable to the church of England—thirty-six fires blazing at once in London—the house of the Chief Justice sacked—the children of the Prime Minister taken out of their beds in their night clothes, and laid on the table of the horse guards—and all this the effect of nothing but the gross, brutish ignorance of the population, who had been left brutes in the midst of Christianity, savages in the midst of civilization. Nor is this the only occasion when similar results have followed from the same cause. To this cause are attributable all the outrages of the Bristol and Nottingham riots, and all the misdeeds of General Rock and Captain Swing; incendiary fires in some district, and in others riots against machinery, tending more than anything else to degrade men to the level of the inferior animals. Could it have been supposed that all this could have taken place in a community were even the common laborer to have his mind opened by education, and be taught to find his pleasure in the exercise of his intellect, taught to revere his Maker, taught to regard his fellow-creatures with kindness, and taught likewise to feel respect for legitimate authority, taught how to pursue redress of real wrongs by constitutional methods?

* * * Take away education, and what are your means? Military force, prisons, solitary cells, penal colonies, gibbets—all the other apparatus of penal laws. If, then, there be an end to which government is bound to attain—if there are two ways only of attaining it—if one of those ways is by elevating the moral and intellectual character of the people, and if the other way is by inflicting pain, who can doubt which way every government ought to take? It seems to me that no proposition can be more strange than this—that the State ought to have power to punish and is bound to punish its subjects for not knowing their duty, but at the same time is to take no step to let them know what their duty is.

I say, therefore, that the education of the people ought to be the first concern of a State, not only because it is an efficient means of promoting and obtaining that which all allow to be the main end of government, but because it is the most efficient, the most humane, the most civilized, and in all respects the best means of attaining that end. This is my deliberate conviction; and in this opinion I am fortified by thinking that it is also the opinion of all the great legislators, of all the great statesmen, of all the great political philosophers of all ages and of all nations, even including those whose general opinion is, and has ever been, to restrict the functions of government. Sir, it is the opinion of all the greatest champions of civil and religious liberty in the old world and in the new; and of none—I hesitate not to say it—more emphatically than of those whose names are held in the highest estimation by the Protestant Nonconformists of England. Assuredly if there be any class of men whom the Protestant Nonconformists of England respect more highly than another—if any whose memory they hold in deeper veneration—it is that class of men, of high spirit and unconquerable principles, who in the days of Archbishop Laud preferred leaving their native country, and living in the savage solitudes of a wilderness, rather than to live in a land of prosperity and plenty, where they could not enjoy the privilege of worshipping their Maker freely according to the dictates of their conscience. Those men, illustrious for ever in history, were the founders of the commonwealth of Massachusetts; but though their love of freedom of conscience was illimitable and indestructible, they could see nothing servile or degrading in the principle that the State should take upon itself the charge of the education of the people. In the year 1642 they passed their first legislative enactment on this subject, in the preamble of which they distinctly pledged themselves to this principle, that education was a matter of the deepest possible importance and the greatest possible interest to all nations and to all communities, and that as such it was, in an eminent degree, deserving of the peculiar attention of the State. I have peculiar satisfaction in referring to the case of America, because those who are the most enthusiastic advocates of the voluntary principle in matters of religion, turn fondly to that land as affording the best illustration that can be any where found of the successful operation of that principle. And yet what do we find to be the principle of America and of all the greatest men that she has produced upon the question? "Educate the people," was the first admonition addressed by Penn to the commonwealth he founded—"educate the people" was the last legacy of Washington to the republic of the United States—"educate the people" was the unceasing exhortation of Jefferson. Yes, of Jefferson himself; and I quote his authority with peculiar favor; for of all the eminent public men that the world ever saw, he was the one whose greatest delight it was to pare down the functions of governments to the lowest possible point, and to leave the freest possible scope for the exercise of individual exertion. Such was the disposition—such, indeed, might be said to be the mission of Jefferson; and yet the latter portion of his life was devoted with ceaseless energy to the effort to procure the blessing of a State education for Virginia. And against the concurrent testimony of all these great authorities, what have you, who take the opposite side, to show? * * * Institutions for the education of the people are on every ground the very description of institutions which the government, as the guardians of the people's bests interests, are bound to interfere with. This point has been powerfully put by Mr. David Hume. * * * After laying down very emphatically the general principle of non-interference and free competition, Mr. Hume goes on to make the admission that there undoubtedly may be and are some very useful and necessary matters which do not give that degree of advantage to any man that they can be safely left to individuals. Such matters, he says, must be effected by money, or by distinctions, or by both. Now, sir, if there ever was a case to which that description faithfully and accurately applies, I maintain that it is to the calling of the schoolmaster in England. That his calling is a necessary and an useful one, is clear; and yet it is equally clear that he does not obtain, and can not obtain, adequate remuneration without an interference on the part of government. Here, then, we have the precise case, if we are to adopt the illustration of Hume, in which the government ought to interfere. Reasoning *à priori*, the principle of free competition is not sufficient of itself, and can not supply a good education. Let us look at the facts. What is the existing state in England? There has, for years, been nothing except the

principle of non-interference. If, therefore, the principle of free competition were in reality a principle of the same potency in education as we all admit it to be in matters of trade, we ought to see education as prosperous under this system of free competition as trade itself is. If we could by possibility have had the principle of free competition fairly tried in any country, it would be in our own. It has been tried for a long time with perfect liberty in the richest country under the heavens, and where the people are not unfriendly to it. If the principle of free competition could show itself sufficient, it ought to be here; our schools ought to be the models of common schools; the people who have been educated in them ought to show the most perfect intelligence; every school ought to have its excellent little library, and its mechanical apparatus; and, instead of there being such a thing as a grown person being unable to read or to write, such an individual ought to be one at whom the people would stare, and who should be noted in the newspapers; while the schoolmaster ought to be as well acquainted with his important duties as the cutler with knives, or the engineer with machinery; moreover, he ought to be amply remunerated, and the highest respect of the public ought to be extended to him. Now, is this the truth? Look at the charges of the judges, at the resolutions of the grand juries, and at the reports made to every public department that has any thing to do with education. Take the reports of the inspectors of prisons. In Hertford House of Correction, out of 700 prisoners, about half were unable to read, and only eight could read and write well. In Maidstone jail, out of 8,000 prisoners, 1,300 were unable to read, and only fifty were able to read and write well. In Coldbath-fields, out of 8,000, it is not said that one could read and write well. If we turn from the reports of the inspectors of prisons to the registers of marriages, we find that there were nearly 130,000 couples married in the year 1844, and of those more than 40,000 of the bridegrooms and more than 60,000 of the brides could not sign their names, but made their marks. Therefore one third of the men and one half of the women, who are supposed to be in the prime of life, and who are destined to be the parents of the next generation, can not sign their names. What does this imply? The most grievous want of education. * * * And it is said, that if we only wait with patience, the principle of free competition will do all that is necessary for education. We have been waiting with patience since the Heptarchy. How much longer are we to wait? Are we to wait till 2,847, or till 3,847? Will you wait till patience is exhausted? Can you say that the experiment which has been tried with so little effect has been tried under unfavorable circumstances? has it been tried on a small scale, or for a short period? You can say none of these things. * * * It was at the end of the 17th century that Fletcher of Saltoun, a brave and able man, who fought and suffered for liberty, was so overwhelmed with the spectacle of misery his country presented, that he actually published a pamphlet, in which he proposed the institution of personal slavery in Scotland as the only way to compel the common people to work. Within two months after the appearance of the pamphlet of Fletcher, the Parliament of Scotland passed in 1696, an act for the settlement of schools. Has the whole world given us such an instance of improvement as that which took place at the beginning of the 18th century? In a short time, in spite of the inclemency of the air and the sterility of the soil, Scotland became a country which had no reason to envy any part of the world, however richly gifted by nature; and remember that Scotchmen did this, and that wherever a Scotchman went—and there were few places he did not go to—he carried with him signs of the moral and intellectual cultivation he had received. If he had a shop, he had the best trade in the street; if he enlisted in the army, he soon became a non-commissioned officer. Not that the Scotchman changed; there was no change in the man, for a hundred years before, Scotchmen of the lower classes were spoken of in London as you speak of the Esquimaux; but such was the difference when this system of State education had been in force for only one generation; the language of contempt was at an end, and that of envy succeeded. Then the complaint was, that wherever the Scotchman came he got more than his share; that when he mixed with Englishmen and Irishmen, he rose as regularly to the top as oil rises on water. * * * Under this system of State education, whatever were its defects, Scotland rose and prospered to such a degree that I do not believe a single person, even of those who now most loudly proclaim their abhorrence of State education, would

venture to say that Scotland would have become the free, civilized country it is, if the education of her people had been left to free competition without any interference on the part of the State. Then how does this argument stand? I doubt whether it be possible to find, if there be any meaning in the science of induction as applied to politics, any instance of an experiment tried so fully and so fairly, tried with all the conditions which Lord Bacon has laid down in his *Novum Organon*, and of which the result was so evident. Observe, you take these two countries so closely resembling each other in many particulars—in one of these two countries, by far the richer of the two, and better able to get on with free competition, you have free competition; and what is the result? The Congregational Union tell you that it is a result, indeed, to make us ashamed, and every enlightened foreigner that comes amongst us, sad. In the other country, little favored by nature, you find a system of State education—not a perfect one, but still an efficient one—and the result is an evident and rapid improvement in the moral and intellectual character of the people, and a consequent improvement in security and in prosperity such as was hardly ever seen before in the world. If this had been the case in surgery or in chemistry, and such experiments and results had been laid before you, would it be possible for you not to see which was the wrong course and which the right? These arguments have most fully convinced me of a truth which I shall not shrink from proclaiming in the face of any clamor that may be raised against it—that it is the duty of the State to educate the common people.

Mr. Carlyle has uttered many indignant rebukes of the niggardly policy of the English government in respect to the education of the people.

Who would suppose that education were a thing which had to be advocated on the ground of local expediency, or indeed on any ground? As if it stood not on the basis of everlasting duty, as a prime necessity of man. It is a thing that should need no advocating; much as it does actually need. To impart the gift of thinking to those who can not think, and yet who could in that case think; this, one would imagine, was the first function a government had to set about discharging. Were it not a cruel thing to see, in any province of an empire, the inhabitants living all mutilated in their limbs, each strong man with his right arm lamed? How much crueller to find the strong soul, with his eyes still sealed, its eyes extinct, so that it sees not! Light has come into the world, but to this poor peasant, it has come in vain. For six thousand years, the sons of Adam, in sleepless effort, have been devising, doing, discovering, in mysterious, infinite indissoluble communion, warring, a little band of brothers, against the great black empire of necessity and night; they have accomplished such a conquest and conquests; and to this man it is all as if it had not been. The four and twenty letters of the alphabet are still Runic enigmas to him. He passes by on the other side; and that great spiritual kingdom, the toil-worn conquest of his own brothers, all that his brothers have conquered, is a thing non-extant for him; an invisible empire; he knows it not; suspects it not. And is it not his withal; the conquest of his own brothers, the lawfully acquired possession of all men? Baleful enchantment lies over him from generation to generation; he knows not that such an empire is his, that such an empire is at all? O, what are bills of rights, emancipations of black slaves into black apprentices, lawsuits in chancery for some short usufruct of a bit of land? The grand "seed-field of time" is this man's, and you give it him not. Time's seed-field, which includes the earth and all her seed-fields and pearl-oceans, nay her sowers too and pearl-divers, all that was wise and heroic and victorious here below; of which the earth's centuries are but furrows, for it stretches forth from the beginning onward even unto this day!

> "My inheritance, how lordly, wide and fair;
> Time is my fair seed-field, to time I'm heir!"

Heavier wrong is not done under the sun. It lasts from year to year, from century to century; the blinded sire slaves himself out, and leaves a blinded son; and men, made in the image of God, continue as two legged beasts of labor; and in the largest empire of the world, it is a debate whether a small fraction of the revenue of one day (30,000*l.* is but that) shall, after thirteen centuries, be laid out on it, or not laid out on it.

But quitting all that, of which the human soul can not well speak in terms of civility, let us observe now that Education is not only an eternal duty, but has at length become even a temporary and ephemeral one, which the necessities of the hour will oblige us to look after. These twenty-four million laboring men, if their affairs remain unregulated, chaotic, will burn ricks and mills; reduce us, themselves and the world into ashes and ruin. Simply their affairs can not remain unregulated, chaotic; but must be regulated, brought into some kind of order. What intellect were able to regulate them? The intellect of a Bacon, the energy of a Luther, if left to their own strength, might pause in dismay before such a task; a Bacon and Luther added together, to be perpetual prime minister over us, could not do it. No one great and greatest intellect can do it. What can? Only twenty-four million ordinary intellects, once awakened into action; these well presided over, may. Intellect, insight, is the discernment or order in disorder; it is the discovery of the will of Nature, of God's will; the beginning of the capability to walk according to that. With perfect intellect, were such possible without perfect morality, the world would be perfect; its efforts unerringly correct, its results continually successful, its condition faultless. Intellect is like light; the Chaos becomes a World under it: *fait lux*. These twenty-four million intellects are but common intellects; but they are intellects; in earnest about the matter, instructed each about his own province of it; laboring each perpetually, with what partial light can be attained, to bring such province into rationality. From the partial determinations and their conflict, springs the universal. Precisely what quantity of intellect was in the twenty-four millions will be exhibited by the result they arrive at; that quantity and no more. According as there was intellect or no intellect in the individuals, will the general conclusion they make out embody itself as a world-healing Truth and Wisdom, or as a baseless fateful Hallucination, a Chimæra breathing *not* fabulous fire!

Dissenters call for one scheme of Education, the Church objects; this party objects, and that; there is endless objection, by him and by her and by it: a subject encumbered with difficulties on every side! Pity that difficulties exist; that Religion, of all things, should occasion difficulties. We do not extenuate them; in their reality they are considerable; in their appearance and pretension, they are insuperable, heart-appalling to all Secretaries of the Home Department. For, in very truth, how can Religion be divorced from Education? An irreverent knowledge is no knowledge; may be a development of the logical or other handicraft faculty inward or outward; but is no culture of the soul of a man. A knowledge that ends in barren self-worship, comparative indifference or contempt for all God's Universe except one insignificant item thereof, what is it? Handicraft development, and even shallow as handicraft. Nevertheless is handicraft itself, and the habit of the merest logic, nothing? It is already something: it is the indispensable beginning of every thing! Wise men know it to be an indispensable something; not yet much; and would so gladly superadd to it the element whereby it may become all. Wise men would not quarrel in attempting this; they would lovingly co-operate in attempting it.

"And now how teach religion?" so asks the indignant Ultra-radical, cited above; an Ultra-radical seemingly not of the Benthamee species, with whom, though his dialect is far different, there are sound churchmen, we hope, who have some fellow-feeling: "How teach religion? By plying with liturgies, catechisms, credos; droning thirty-nine or other articles incessantly into the infant ear? Friends! In that case, why not apply to Birmingham, and have Machines made, and set up at all street-corners, in highways and byways, to repeat and vociferate the same, not ceasing night or day? The genius of Birmingham is adequate to that. Albertus Magnus had a leather man that could articulate; not to speak of Martinus Scriblerus's Nüremberg man that could reason as well as we know who! Depend upon it, Birmingham can make machines to repeat liturgies and articles; to do whatsoever feat is mechanical. And what were all school-masters, nay all priests and churches compared with this Birmingham Iron Church! Votes of two millions in aid of the church were then something. You order, at so many pounds a-head, so many thousand iron parsons as your grant covers; and fix them by satisfactory masonry in all quarters wheresoever wanted, to preach there independent of the world. In loud thoroughfares, still more in unawakened districts, troubled with argumentative infidelity, you make the windpipes wider, strengthen the main steam-cylinder; your parson preaches to the

due pitch, while you give him coal; and fears no man or thing. Here *were* a "Church-extension;" to which I, with my last penny, did I believe in it, could subscribe. —— Ye blind leaders of the blind! Are we Calmucks, that pray by turning of a rotatory calebash with written prayers in it? Is Mammon and machinery the means of converting human souls, as of spinning cotton? Is God, as Jean Paul predicted it would be, become verily a Force; the Æther too a Gas! Alas, that Atheism should have got the length of putting on priests' vestments, and penetrating into the sanctuary itself! Can dronings of articles, repetitious of liturgies, and all the cash and contrivance of Birmingham and the Bank of England united bring ethereal fire into a human soul, quicken it out of earthly darkness into heavenly wisdom? Soul is kindled only by soul. To "teach" religion, the first thing needful, and also the last and the only thing, is finding of a man who *has* religion. All else follows from this, church-building, church extension, whatever else is needful follows; without this nothing will follow."

From which we, for our part, conclude that the method of teaching religion to the English people is still far behindhand; that the wise and pious may well ask themselves in silence wistfully, "How *is* that last priceless element, by which education becomes perfect, to be superadded?" and the unwise who think themselves pious, answering aloud, "By this method, By that method," long argue of it to small purpose.

But now, in the meantime, could not by some fit official person, some fit announcement be made, in words well-weighed, in plan well-schemed, adequately representing the facts of the thing, that after thirteen centuries of waiting, he the official person, and England with him, was minded to have the mystery of the Alphabetic Letters imparted to all human souls in his realm? Teaching of religion was a thing he could not undertake to settle this day; it would be work for a day after this; the work of this day was teaching of the alphabet to all people. The miraculous art of reading and writing, such seemed to him the needful preliminary of all teaching, the first corner-stone of what foundation soever could be laid for what edifice soever, in the teaching kind. Let pious Churchism make haste, let pious Dissenterism make haste, let all pious preachers and missionaries make haste, bestir themselves according to their zeal and skill; he the official person stood up for the Alphabet; and was even impatient for it, having waited thirteen centuries now. He insisted, and would take no denial, postponement, promise, excuse or subterfuge. That all English persons should be taught to read. He appealed to all rational Englishmen, of all creeds, classes and colors. Whether this was not a fair demand; nay whether it was not an indispensable one in these days, Swing and Chartism having risen? For a choice of inoffensive Hornbooks, and Schoolmasters able to teach reading, he trusted the mere secular sagacity of a National Collective Wisdom, in proper committee, might be found sufficient. He proposed to appoint such Schoolmasters, to venture on the choice of such Hornbooks; to send a Schoolmaster and Hornbook into every township, parish and hamlet of England; so that in ten years hence, an Englishman who could not read might be acknowledged as the monster which he really is.

* * We can conceive even, as in Prussia, that a penalty, civil disabilities, that penalties and disabilities till they were found effectual, might be by law inflicted on every parent who did not teach his children to read, on every man who had not been taught to read. We can conceive, in fine, such is the vigour of our imagination, there might be found in England, at a dead-lift, strength enough to perform this miracle, and produce it henceforth as a miracle done: the teaching of England to read! Harder things, we do know, have been performed by nations before now, not abler-looking than England. Ah me! if, by some beneficent chance, there should be an official man found in England who could and would, with deliberate courage, after ripe counsel, with candid insight, with patience, practical sense, knowing realities to be real, knowing clamors to be clamorous and to seem real, propose this thing, and the innumerable things springing from it,—wo to any Churchism or any Dissenterism that cast itself athwart the path of that man! Avaunt ye gainsayers! is darkness, and ignorance of the Alphabet necessary for you? Reconcile yourselves to the Alphabet, or depart elsewhither!—Would not all that has genuineness in England gradually rally round such a man; all that has strength in England?

REESE LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HESSE DARMSTADT.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

The territory now occupied by Hesse Cassel, Hesse Darmstadt, and Hesse Homburg, originally belonged to the Catté, or Chatts, and with various fortunes, was ruled by earls and dukes, and merged by marriage and inheritancy into other dominions, until 1292, when Henry I., surnamed the *child*, was made a *landgrave* of the Empire by Emperor Adolphus. On the death of Henry I. in 1806, his dominion was partitioned, and in 1504 the parts were again united by William II., and bequeathed in 1509 to his son Philip, surnamed the *Generous*, who introduced the Reformation of Luther, and established, in 1527, the University of Marberg without the authority of the Pope, and endowed it with the revenues of the secularized convents and monasteries. He also favored the introduction of elementary schools in connection with the reformed church. Philip died in 1567, dividing the landgraviate of these among his four sons:—the eldest, William IV., obtained the largest share, with Cassel for his residence; Ludwig, a fourth part, with Marberg, which in the next generation was united with the share of William IV.; Philip, an eighth part, with Rheinfels; and George, an eighth part, with Darmstadt. On the death of Ludwig and Philip, the dominions of these consisted of the Grand Duchy of Hesse Darmstadt and the Electoral Hesse or Hesse Cassel. The landgraviate of Hesse Homburg, with a superficial area of 105,980 square miles, and a population in 1860 of 27,746, originally belonged to Hesse Darmstadt, was set off with some restrictions in 1622, and in 1817 became a member of the German Confederation. Hesse Cassel had in 1860 a territory of 3,647 square miles (composed of five detached provinces or districts) and a population of 726,686. Hesse Darmstadt had an area of 3,206 square miles and a population of 845,571.

The Grand Duchy of Hesse Darmstadt, exclusive of the small outlying districts of Vöhl, Wimpfen, and Kürnbach, consists of two detached but nearly equal portions, forming the three provinces of Upper Hesse, Starkenburg, and Rhenish Hesse, which are again subdivided into twenty-six circles or districts, and these into parishes. The province of Upper Hesse is mountainous, and its climate much more severe than that of the two lower provinces, which include extensive plains belonging to the valleys of the Rhine and Main, growing a great variety of fruits, and noted for the excellence of their wines. One half of the territory is

arable land and highly cultivated, Upper Hesse yielding a large surplus of grain for export, and the value of the wine crop of the lower provinces amounting, in good seasons, to 4,000,000 thalers ($2,900,000.) Much attention is also given to the raising of horses and cattle. Manufactures are but limited.

The budget for the years 1860–62, showed the amount of annual receipts to be 9,096,664 florins ($6,775,000)—expenditures, 9,066,796 fl.—public debt, exclusive of railway loans, 6,470,000 fl. ($2,685,000.) The army comprises, in all, 10,618 men, whose term of service is six years, two years of which is in the reserve force.

PROVINCES.	Area.	Pop. in 1858.	Chief Towns.	Pop. in 1861.
Upper Hesse,	1,531 sq. m.	300,261	Giessen.	10,000
Starkenburg,	1,151 "	318,422	Darmstadt.	28,528
Rhenish Hesse,	525 "	226,888	Mayence.	41,273

The total area is 3,761 sq. miles. The population in 1861 was 856,907, (area of Connecticut, 4,674 sq. m.—pop. in 1860, 460,147,)—which may be divided, in regard to religion, as follows:—Lutherans, 405,000; Reformed Calvinists, 30,000; Evangelicals, 167,000; Catholics, 221,000; Jews, 30,000; Mennonites, &c., 4,000.

Hesse Darmstadt holds the ninth rank among the states of the German Confederacy, and is a limited monarchy, modified in 1820 by the introduction of two chambers—an upper, composed chiefly of nobility and citizens, appointed for life by the Grand Duke, and a lower, consisting principally of deputies from the chief towns. These chambers must be convoked at least once in three years, but the real power of the government rests with the council of state and the five ministries into which the several branches of the administration are divided. Since 1820 there have been frequent disagreements and much ill-feeling between the chambers and the government, and frequent dissensions in church and state; nevertheless the duchy has made considerable advances in material prosperity, railroads have been opened and new roads formed, monopolies and other commercial restrictions removed, greater freedom permitted in the curriculum of the University, and a more liberal spirit infused into the system of national education. Although these and other improvements were grudgingly yielded, they have been permanent, but the grand ducal policy has been neither liberal nor in accordance with the feelings and views of the majority of the people.

The account of the system and means of public instruction below that of the University, is drawn mainly from an article by Rev. K. Strack, in Schmid's "*Encyklopädie des gesammten Erziehungs und Unterrichtswesens*," (Gotha, 1861.) under the following heads:

I. Common or Elementary Schools.
II. Secondary or Classical Schools.
III. Real and Trade Schools for Boys.
IV. High Schools for Girls.
V. Orphan, Rescue, and Special Schools.

I. PRIMARY OR COMMON SCHOOLS.

1. *History.*

The history of the school system of Hesse Darmstadt commences with the introduction of the Reformation into the duchy. The first synod, of 1526, strictly required the establishment of schools for boys in every city, borough, and village, for instruction in all the elementary branches; or wherever this was impossible, the pastors were required to see that they were taught at least to read and write. Schools for girls were also declared necessary in the cities and desirable in the villages, where instruction should be administered by pious women in reading and the elements of religion. Every morning these schools were opened with the singing of psalms and the reading of a chapter from the Bible. Between 1576 and 1596, thirteen new schools were endowed by Count George I., and in the city schools of Darmstadt the poor received instruction, food and clothing gratuitously. In 1634 an ordinance was issued by George II., requiring more thorough instruction in the catechism, and that all children, both of rich and poor, should attend school until they could at least read and write. In case private tutors were employed, they were required to give satisfactory evidence of orthodoxy and fitness for teaching. The school expenses of the poor were defrayed from the poor's box of the church or by the contributions of the richer inhabitants. Count Ernest Ludwig, in 1733, made several excellent regulations in relation to religious instruction, the abolition of numerous holidays, fixing the number of school hours at three each forenoon and afternoon, and withholding confirmation from children who had been too negligent in attendance. But these stringent rules do not seem to have been fully carried into execution, the school ordinances of 1724 still remaining for the most part in force until a recent period. The schools were in the position of ecclesiastical institutions under ecclesiastical authority, until the territorial changes in the early part of the present century made some modification necessary. In the provinces of Upper Hesse and Starkenburg the affairs of both church and school were entrusted to a "church and school council," while in Rhenish Hesse the schools were under the supervision of the provincial authorities. School ordinances for the several provinces were issued in 1826–7, but were wholly superseded by the edict of June 6, 1832, together with the "Instructions for the school authorities" of June 10, of the same year.

2. *General Outlines of School Legislation and Administration.*

School attendance commences with the seventh year, or generally at the preceding Whitsunday, if the birthday occurs before the end of December, and is obligatory until confirmation, which takes place at the

age of fourteen. Attendance may be deferred a year for good reasons by the local school directors, and for a longer period by the school commissioners of the district, who also can, if necessary, excuse from attendance before confirmation. It is but seldom, and only under peculiar circumstances and by consent of the Higher Consistory, that a child is admitted to confirmation at a younger age than fourteen. Absence from school for a day or two may be granted by the teacher—for several weeks, by the school directors. If confirmation is deferred beyond the fourteenth year, the pupil is obliged to remain still at school; and should his dismissal take place before that time, his tuition fees must still be paid for the full period. Unexcused absences are punished by a fine of three kreutzers (two cents) per day, which may be doubled or trebled. The absentees are reported to the school officials at the end of each quarter, or oftener. Such parents as are especially delinquent are punished with imprisonment on decree of the police court, and are debarred from assistance of every kind from the public funds. The fines thus collected are applied to the education of poor children. Attendance at schools of a higher grade than the common schools is not obligatory, nor can fines be imposed for neglect of Sunday instruction in the catechism; but the system of fines is not laid aside until the children are subjected to the influence of a higher culture than is found in the common schools. At the higher schools, attendance until the age of eighteen or twenty is left to be secured by moral influences only.

The expenses of the school are defrayed by the parish, unless there are special funds established, or claims upon other sources, as upon certain cloister funds or church revenues. Assistance is rendered by the state to parishes that are especially needy. The income of the provincial school funds, arising from the unexpended revenues of vacant schools and other sources, is applied to the occasional relief of poor and worthy teachers. This income in Starkenburg amounts to 5,700 fl. ($2,365,) and in Upper Hesse, to 3,000 fl. ($1,245)—while in Rhenish Hesse its amount is small. Starkenburg also possesses a fund of 96,800 fl., devised in 1807 by State Councilor May, the income of which is equally divided among such of the teachers in that part of the province formerly belonging to ancient Hesse, as receive salaries of less than 300 fl., amounting during the last year to 26 fl. to each teacher; and the late Councillor Wenck devised 400 fl. to Starkenburg and 300 fl. to Upper Hesse, the income to be expended every three years in premiums to teachers and scholars. In Rhenish Hesse there is a special fund for the erection of churches and schools, derived since 1813 from the tenth of the proceeds of sales of estates belonging to the parishes, the revenues of which, from 1820 to 1836, amounted to 306,126 fl. ($127,000.) In most parishes there are charges made for tuition and fuel, which are collected by the parish treasurer; these charges vary in the villages from one to two florins, and in the cities may amount to four florins. But there is no want of parishes in which there is no school money whatever, except

what is given as a voluntary New Year's gift. Poor children are provided for at the expense of the parish, if there is no money applicable from other sources. The special schools for the poor that formerly existed in most of the larger cities, are generally abolished.

The law requires that in every parish where there are thirty-six children there shall be a school—with one hundred children, two schools, or arrangements for an independent assistant—with two hundred and fifty children, three schools, &c. There are no other public schools than these parish schools, except that schools for laboring men are sustained in many of the small cities by parish contributions or other means. In Upper Hesse and Starkenburg the schools are almost wholly sectarian, while the contrary has been true in regard to many of the parishes of Rhenish Hesse. Very recently many of these latter schools have also become sectarian, so that the number of evangelical schools is now 1,230; of Catholic schools, 433; and of unsectarian, only 67. When several teachers are engaged in the same unsectarian school, they are chosen from the several sects in due proportion. The Mennonites and Anabaptists, as well as the Jews, are obliged to send their children to the public schools, but not, of course, to receive religious instruction. Should they establish schools of their own, it must be under the regulations of the law. The teacher is appointed by the state authorities, and, in the Jewish schools, can not at the same time be a butcher.

The immediate oversight of the schools, with very few exceptions, rests with the local "school directory," consisting of the pastor, burgomaster, and two members elected for six years by the district school commissioners on the nomination of the pastor and burgomaster. In the unsectarian schools the supervision alternates between the pastors, &c., of the different sects. This directory has the management of the school property, the imposition and appropriation of the fines for non-attendance, the charge of the annual examinations, &c.

The superintendence of all the public and private elementary schools within a district is entrusted to the "District School Commissioners," consisting of the District Councilor (Kreisrath) as chairman, and of two pastors of different sects, if there are such in the district, and elected by the ministry for five years. They are required to visit all the schools every two years, accompanied by some of the teachers of the district, and are empowered to impose fines of 5 florins upon local directors, and of 20 florins upon teachers.

The general superintendence of all the common and real schools of the duchy was, until 1849, in the hands of the "Higher School Council," (Oberschulrath,) which was then united with the "Higher Council of Education," (Oberstudienrathe,) having charge of the higher institutions of learning, and received the title of the "Higher Directory of Education," (Oberstudiendirection.) This directory have power to inflict fines of 30 fl. and two months' suspension from office and salary, upon disobedient and negligent teachers, or to request their dismissal. They appoint

temporary teachers, but only with the approval of the ministry, if the office is to continue longer than a year, and they are required to arrange for the visitation of all the schools by the members of the directory within the period of six years. The ministry appoints teachers, and confirms the severer punishments that may have been imposed for neglect of duty, and its consent is also necessary to the establishment of new schools, and to the introduction or abolishment of unsectarian schools. The bishop and the consistory have no decisive voice in school affairs, and it is expressly provided that the local school directors, both pastors and elected members, shall be independent of the church authorities in matters relating to the schools. Care, however, has hitherto been taken that among the members of the Higher Directory there should be a representative from the consistory and a Catholic priest. Religious instruction, on the other hand, is left so far to the united supervision of the bishop and the consistory that they have the decision respecting the introduction of the catechism, and the use of other books of religious instruction.

3. *Statistics.*

The number of school children is 150,568, or 17.5 per cent. of the whole population, distributed among 1,756 schools, and averaging 85.7 in each. The number of children of schoolage varies but slightly from the number in actual attendance. The number of school districts is twenty-six, corresponding to the number of circles. For the children of soldiers in garrison there is at Darmstadt a garrison school, with four teachers, under the direction of the ministry of war.

In scarcely any other state has there been so much done during the last twenty-five years for the improvement of schools as in Hesse. When the edict of 1832 was issued, there were yet many "winter schools" in existence, especially in the Odenwald. It was usual among the small parishes to engage a school candidate, or one preparing for the office, for six or seven months, who generally "boarded around," and received scarcely servants' wages. There were also teachers who worked at a trade and at the same time kept a school, and many of the salaries did not amount to 60–80 fl. In 1808 only one-third of the teachers received over 100 fl., ($41.50,) one-third between 50 and 100 fl., and one-third less than 50 fl. The states, in 1832, appropriated 9,587 fl. for the purpose of raising the salaries to a minimum of 155 fl., and in 1839 they had assumed the following relative proportions:—

225	teachers rec'd	155 fl.	191	rec'd	250–300 fl.	124	rec'd	400–500 fl.
224	" "	155–200 fl.	155	"	300–350 fl.	45	"	500–600 fl.
261	" "	200–250 fl.	121	"	350–400 fl.	36	"	600–800 fl.

The government and the chambers showed a continually increasing desire to render the condition of teachers more tolerable, improvements were frequently advised by the deputies, and in 1849 it was proposed to abolish all tuition fees and to classify the teachers, with salaries of 350–800 fl. Want of means on the part of the government prevented its

accomplishment. The salaries at that time amounted to 474,675 fl., ($197,000,) of which the state contributed 21,468 fl. ($8,900.) The average of all the salaries was 303 fl. ($125.75)—one-eighth of the teachers received 400 fl., nearly one-half more than 300 fl., and three fourths more than 200 fl. Upon the meeting of the chambers in 1852, there arose a protracted discussion upon the question of raising the minimum salary to 225 or 300 fl.—the lower chamber being in favor at least of the lowest sum, while the upper chamber opposed it. The government, however, granted an allowance for the support, as it might be needed, of such deserving teachers as were receiving less than 300 fl. The state budget now includes, as appropriated to common schools, 44,468 fl., ($18,500,) which is distributed as follows:—For salaries, 21,468 fl.; for pensions, 7,000 fl.; and for the increase of teachers' salaries under 300 fl., 1,600 fl. To this we may add the income arising from the Teachers' Widows' Fund, amounting to 16,782 fl., and the appropriation of 12,185 fl. to the two teachers' seminaries.

It may be generally affirmed that, of all those who have attained the school age since 1832, very few are now unable to read and write.

4. *Internal Administration.*

Wherever there is but one school, the elementary class, including all children under eight or nine years of age, generally receives two hours of separate instruction each day. When there are two schools, the division is made with reference to age and capacity, very seldom by sexes. In case of three schools, they comprise a male high school, female high school, and mixed elementary school, each of which may be again divided into three classes with reference to age, &c.; the number of divisions should not be ordinarily more than three—and this classification should be made wherever there are more than sixty scholars. The branches of study that are absolutely required are religion, including biblical and religious history, reading, writing, ciphering, the German language, and singing; the conditionally obligatory branches are geography and elementary geometry; while drawing and agriculture are left still farther in the background.

Twenty-six hours of instruction per week are required, though in practice thirty hours are generally given; not more than six hours a day are permitted. In the villages and small agricultural towns there is a "summer school" kept from the 15th of May to the 1st of November, three or four hours each day.

As the laws have always regarded instruction in religion as the subject of highest importance in the common schools, every teacher is required to impart it, and in accordance with the principles of the sect to which he belongs. In the unsectarian schools the children receive religious instruction only from the teacher of their own faith, or from their pastor or priest. Every pastor should visit and instruct the school of his parish twice a week, or if he can not teach personally, he must watch over the

teacher, and prescribe what is to be committed to memory. This consists of portions selected from the old Baden catechism, which, however, is of late going into disuse. In the Lutheran parishes the whole of Luther's smaller catechism is learned. A certain number of church hymns are also required of those intending to become teachers, at their admission into the teachers' seminary. The whole of the Bible, and not merely the New Testament, is used in the schools. The children are required to attend church service, but it is not strictly determined how far the teacher may use compulsory measures to enforce it.

A public examination should be held annually between Easter and Whitsunday, at which the teacher is required to make report of the past year. The vacations are determined by local circumstances, but can not exceed eight weeks during the year, nor continue longer than four weeks at a time. Flogging is allowed, if other methods of punishment are ineffectual, but record must be made of the occurrence, together with the reasons for its infliction. Should severer chastisement be needed, it must be done with the knowledge of the parents, and in the presence of a member of the school directory, by the public official. Scholars that have been legally sentenced for crime are punished by confinement—in the school-house, for periods of less than twelve hours—for longer periods, in the public jail, apart from other criminals, and at such time as the school is not in session. Children under twelve years of age can be punished only in school, even for the graver offenses. There has been no special decision how far the teacher can and ought to punish for faults committed out of school. He is only required to see that the scholars do not visit places of public amusement, at least without the company of their parents, that they read no improper books, are kind to animals, spare the birds, &c. He should also exert his influence against the use of intoxicating drinks. Sunday and evening schools, &c., for those whose education has been neglected, have been able to maintain only a brief existence, spite of repeated attempts and persistent personal effort. The same is true of female industrial schools.

5. *Teachers and their Training.*

A distinction is made only between teachers that have been permanently located by the ministry, and those that have been temporarily engaged—not between principal and assistant teachers. It is only in special cases that the temporary teachers are allowed to have assistants. The subject of teachers' seminaries had been discussed as early as 1784, but funds were then wanting for their establishment, and it was not until 1804 that the Catholic seminary at Bensheim was commenced, in connection with the gymnasium there; the second was opened in 1808, at Friedberg, and is evangelical. The number of students at Friedberg is 100, at Bensheim 30 or 40, principally from the class of farmers and teachers. At the first there are three regular teachers and two assistants, besides the director; at the latter, two teachers and one or two assist-

ants. The directors of the deaf and dumb institution also instruct the students in their methods of teaching, and at Friedberg a professor in the theological seminary gives them instruction in religion. The appropriations from the state amount to 7,500 fl. and 4,500 fl. respectively. The legal age for admission is sixteen years, and the qualifications required are such as can be acquired at the common schools of the higher grade, with some skill in playing upon the piano. The course of study requires two years attendance, and the number of teachers in the duchy that have not attended the seminaries is scarcely four per cent. of the whole. There is a model school attached to each seminary. The students at each reside in a single building under the charge of the teachers, boarding there or at a boarding-house in the neighborhood. Rooms, wood, lights, &c., are gratuitous, and poor pupils receive an allowance of 30–40 fl., for which an appropriation of 800 fl. is made by the state. A public examination is held at the close of the course, and a second one before the higher school authorities, at which the candidate should exhibit an accurate knowledge of biblical history and of the doctrines of religion, with a capacity to state and explain them in a manner to awaken the religious feelings of their pupils—in the German language, a correct and rhetorical style of reading, a composition free of errors, upon some subject connected with the branches upon which he is examined, and skill in discussing the principles of syntax and orthography—in history, a general knowledge of the nations mentioned in the Bible, the outlines of German history, and the origin of the modern states—in geography, a knowledge of the figure and structure of the earth in general, and its characteristics as a planet, of the more important seas, mountains, and countries, and especially and more intimately, of Germany and Hesse—in natural history and philosophy, an acquaintance with the most important principles—in mathematics, a familiarity with the rule of three, the chain rule, fellowship, and easy algebraic equations—in geometry, a knowledge of the fundamental principles, the construction of angles and figures, and their measurement—and in music, of its elementary principles, the composition of harmonies, the structure of the organ, singing church tunes by note, playing, &c. In case of failure on the part of younger candidates, a second examination may be granted. Teachers' meetings and reading circles are under the control of the district commissioners, and many parishes make small contributions towards their support.

The permanent settlement of the teacher is determined by the minister of the interior, generally at the age of 24–30, and the parishes have no right of petition against the person appointed. In some Catholic parishes, the priest has the right of presentation, in conjunction with the government—so likewise the princes and many noblemen. The church authorities have no right, even where the offices of sexton and teacher are united, to interfere with the appointment; only in eleven schools where the teachers have also regular ministerial duties to perform, does the consistory appoint the temporary teachers and coöperate in the selec-

tion of permanent ones. Other schools that need to be supplied with theological graduates, are supplied by the grand duke on nomination of the higher directory acting in conjunction with the consistory. Teachers are dismissed by the ministry, when admonitions and gentler measures are ineffectual; but expulsion may follow a single gross transgression. An investigation is always supposed, though there are no prescribed forms and conditions. Assistants can be engaged only with the approval of the higher directory, and they must at least be such as the dignity and requirements of the positions demand. Leave of absence for a week may be granted to teachers by the local directory, and for two months, or less, by the district commissioners. Private teachers and the principals of educational establishments, with their assistants, are obliged to obtain the approval, at any time revocable, of the school authorities.

For the expense of salary the state furnishes its appropriation and the parish its general tax. Deserving teachers also receive gifts from the provincial and other funds, and in rare cases the titles of chorister, or preceptor. There are, however, no regulations fixing the amount of salaries, pensions, &c., except that no teacher can receive more than 150 fl. from the state fund; but this is designated expressly as "assistance." Some city parishes have given pensions of 500 fl. The yearly pension from the widows' fund is 70 fl. Towards this fund the teachers who receive over 200 fl. contribute 6 fl. annually, others give 3 fl., and each parish 2 fl.

Female teachers are employed only in some girls' schools in Rhenish Hesse, especially in and near Mayence. There are also five canonesses employed in the city schools of the same place.

6. *Remarks.*

Many of these regulations, though excellent, still remain inoperative. Indeed, the execution of some of them, such as the one requiring the visitation of all the schools every six years by the higher directory, however desirable, is wholly impossible. There are, besides, many deficiencies yet to be supplied. Through the want of a fixed and general code of school regulations, the teachers and their movements are now subjected to the operation of the most diverse rules. Instruction in the seminaries has, beyond question, recently become more practical, but it should in many respects be yet more so. The temporary teachers should everywhere receive a fixed salary, and it is especially desirable that there should be a settled rule respecting pensions, whereby they shall not be left to the decisions of arbitrary will or the promptings of sympathy merely—and their payment should also be, at least generally, through the state treasury. Immediately before the revolution of 1848, the teachers expressed their desires in a memorial, briefly as follows: Union of the two seminaries, prior preparation at a real school, the complete separation of school and church, membership in the school directory, the district school commissioners to be all teachers, the exclusion of theologians from all schools, salaries of 350–800 fl. exclusive of house rent, &c. The realization of such hopes is probably far distant.

B. THE CLASSICAL SCHOOL SYSTEM.

1. *History.*

There is six gymnasia within the duchy, viz:—

1. At Darmstadt, founded in 1629, with a capital of 14,360 fl. Seven classes. Evangelical.

2. At Giessen, founded in 1605; its capital transferred to the University fund. Six classes. Evangelical.

3. At Worms, formed by the union of a former evangelical gymnasium and the Catholic seminary; capital 50,000 fl. It has a real school attached. Evangelical and Catholic.

4. At Mayence, sustained by the former University fund. Eight classses. Catholic.

5. At Bensheim, capital 130,000 fl. Four classes. Catholic.

6. At Büdingen, founded in 1601 for the better training of pastors and teachers, and established as a public gymnasium in 1822. Evangelical.

These institutions were, until 1824, under the control of district authorities; those at Darmstadt, Büdingen, and Bensheim, under church consistories; those at Worms and Mayence under the provincial authorities, and the one at Giessen under the University. In that year their management was placed in the hands of three provincial boards of commissioners of education, which, in 1832, were united with the Higher Council of Education, (Oberstudienrath.) All are now immediately under the control of the Higher Directory of Education. In important cases, the directory confer with the assembled teachers, though in certain circumstances they can decide upon their own responsibility against the opinion of the majority; in any case, they have the right to a temporary veto, pending the decision of the higher authorities. Consistories and bishops have only the charge of religious instruction, and see that no irreligious influence becomes prevalent. The principal support of these schools rests upon the state, assisted by the income of existing funds.

2. *Statistics.*

There is one gymnasium to 143,000 inhabitants, and one student to 160 common school scholars. The whole number of students is 936; of annual graduates, about 110. The attendance of students preparing for the university has been, upon the whole, uniform, but it seems of late to be slightly on the decrease, and ever since the establishment of real schools many of the graduates, especially those from Mayence and Darmstadt, enter into business or the military service. There are no private institutions of this class, only such as are preparatory to it. The number of regular teachers is, in Darmstadt, 10; in Mayence, 13;

in Giessen, 8; in Worms, 9; in Bensheim, 4; in Büdingen, 4; total, 48; besides 30–36 irregular teachers and assistants.

The entire expenses of the gymnasia amount, in Darmstadt, to 20,444 fl.; in Giessen, to 13,313 fl.; in Büdingen, to 7,010 fl.; in Worms, to 12,082 fl.; total, 52,849 fl., of which the state contributes 28,040 fl. The receipts for tuition amount to 12,560 fl. The gymnasium at Mayence receives nothing from the state—that at Bensheim, 2,000 fl. The tuition fees of each pupil are 12–25 fl.—generally the latter sum. In former years, the sons of teachers were exempt; at Mayence and Worms, the fees are remitted wholly or in part to the poorer students—seldom or never in the other gymnasia. The distribution of premiums is generally determined by the students themselves. There are certain endowments for this purpose. In other cases the premiums are paid from the school fund. The interest of the Fuhr legacy of 1,000 fl., in Darmstadt, is given in prizes to members of the first and second classes.

3. *Internal Arrangement.*

This differs in the several gymnasia. The one at Mayence alone has the full number of eight classes. At Darmstadt, the place of the lower class is supplied by the private preparatory schools. At Giessen, the two higher classes are formed of the first and second, and of the third and fourth combined. At the others, the classes of each two years are united into one, while at Worms there are real classes attached to the gymnasial, though they have but few hours in common.

Students are admitted at the age of ten years, and are required to be able to read German fluently in both the German and Roman characters, to write correctly from dictation in both German and Roman script, and to be acquainted with the four primary rules of arithmetic as applied to abstract numbers; a knowledge of the regular declension and conjugation in Latin, and ability to translate easy sentences is also desired. The course of study continues eight years—a year to each class, and two years to the combined classes. The average time spent in school is fixed at thirty hours per week, and is divided in the different classes, as follows:—

SUBJECTS.	CLASSES.—*Hours per Week.*							
	VIII.	VII.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
German,	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	2
Latin,	10	8	8	8	8	8	7	7
Greek,			2	4	4	5	6	6
Hebrew,							2	2
French,	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2
Mathematics,	2	2	3	3	4	4	4	4
Nat. Philosophy,	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Geography,	2	2	2	2	2	2		
History,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Penmanship,	2	1	1	1				
Gymnastics,	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Religious instruction is given by teachers who have received a theological education, or, in the sectarian gymnasia, by the settled ministers. A special plan of instruction has been recently introduced, dividing the course into two grades. The first, for the five lower classes, includes biblical history, with the committing to memory of texts and hymns, the ten commandments, creed, and Lord's prayer, and the explanations of the catechism, followed by the study of the appointed text-book upon the Christian doctrines of faith and morals, a concise history of the Christian religion, and explanations of the doctrinal differences of the various sects. The advanced course commences with the study of the Holy Scriptures simply, or includes a more extended history of religion and the church, showing the development of church doctrines and spread of the church, together with a view of the skeptical doctrines of the present age. The exercises of each day commence and close, at least at the end of the week, with prayer. At Darmstadt, where most of the students have been confirmed, divine worship is held in a hall of the gymnasium every two weeks, and teachers and students together partake of the communion. Elsewhere, care is at least taken that the students attend church, a duty which devolves upon the teachers in turn. For Catholic instruction a priest is especially detailed by the bishop.

In Latin, the course extends to include, in order, Eutropius, Nepos, Victor, Phaedrus, Justin, Cæsar, Pliny, Curtius, Cicero, Horace, Livy, Virgil, Perseus, Juvenal, and Plautus. Of grammar, Latin compositions are required in the upper classes, and the students are taught to express themselves grammatically and elegantly. The making of verses is only occasionally required.

The Greek course includes Xenophon, Homer, Herodotus, Lucian, Plutarch, Thucydides, Demosthenes, Plato, Aristophanes, Sophocles, Æschylus, and perhaps Pindar and Theocritus, with translations into Latin. The study of Greek is obligatory upon such as are intended for the profession of theology, law, and medicine; others may be excused at the request of the parents, which occurs with from one-third to one-half of the students at Mayence, but with only from one-eighth to one-tenth at the other gymnasia; in the lower classes, somewhat more.

Hebrew is taught, usually by one of the regular teachers, to the two higher classes, though younger students are permitted to join them. The study includes the most general principles of syntax, with the translation of extracts from Genesis, Joshua, and the Psalms.

Instruction in French is given by a regular teacher, and is so far extended as to enable the students to read without assistance the best French classics, and to express themselves properly both orally and with the pen. There are frequent exercises in translation, conversation, and composition, especially upon business subjects, and public exercises are occasionally held.

Private instruction in English and Italian is also given by a special teacher, two hours in the week. The students pursuing these branches are classed in two divisions.

The course of German study includes practice in correct and expressive reading, with the explanation and narration of what has been read in the student's own words, both the elements and higher branches of etymology, syntax and the structure of sentences, punctuation, transformation of poetry to prose, composition, metrical versions from old authors, history of modern and ancient German literature, rhetoric, grammar of the old German language, exercises in metrical style, explanations of the classical poems of Klopstock, Schiller, Goethe, Herder, &c. All the classes have exercises in declamation, and the higher ones in public oratory.

The historical course embraces the universal history of the ancient and middle ages, and of modern times, together with the history and statistics of Hesse.

Geography is continued until the sixth year, and is thoroughly taught. Map drawing is practiced, but not generally.

The course of natural science includes a systematic study of zoölogy and botany, human physiology, with the principles of dietetics, natural and mechanical philosophy, chemistry and geology. Two hours in the week are generally given to this branch.

In mathematics, the branches pursued are arithmetic, algebra, elementary and descriptive geometry, plain and spherical trigonometry, and conic sections.

The study of the elements of philosophy should receive two hours, during the last year, but it is usually omitted through the stress of other studies. Singing is obligatory in the four lower classes, and in the upper classes upon those at least who are to pursue the study of theology, or of sacred and secular music. It is usually accompanied with instrumental music, and performed in concert. In the practice of gymnastics, several classes generally unite. At Darmstadt, Mayence, and Büdingen, there are gymnastic halls; at Mayence instruction is also given in swimming.

Out of school hours teachers that have much to do in the way of correcting exercises, are called upon for little else. The class teacher (each class has its "class teacher," except where the system of department teachers is followed,) has to see that the students have some hours each at their own disposal and for exercise, and should visit their rooms from time to time to make sure of their diligence and good behavior. Teachers may receive private pupils, from whom the usual fee is 30 kreutzers (20 cents) an hour—in Darmstadt, 1 florin (41½ cents.) There are students' libraries at all the gymnasia, and they are also permitted to use the teachers' libraries, to each of which an appropriation of 100–150 fl. is made by the state. The lower classes are graded at short intervals, the rank being determined principally from the written exercises; the grading of the upper classes occurs less frequently, and is made somewhat in accordance with the total of mistakes during the half-year.

School discipline extends over the whole conduct of the student, even out of school and school hours. The class teacher is required to see that the printed rules are obeyed, and lists are provided in which each

teacher notes the conduct and diligence of the students under his charge. The severer punishments are, on the whole, seldom inflicted, though in the lower classes corporal chastisement is not strictly forbidden. At the close of every quarter or half year, censures are reported to those deserving them, which must be countersigned by the parents or their representatives. These reports are, in certain cases, sent directly to the parents. The frequenting of beer-houses and smoking of tobacco are forbidden, but yet are common. The latter habit is everywhere followed if the parents permit it. The former evil has been much promoted by the influence of the societies which exist at some of the gymnasia, and it is to be doubted whether the stringent measures that have been taken to remove it, have been at all successful. In other respects, discipline has in general certainly improved upon former times. There is no regulation determining whether the word "You" shall be used in addressing the students, even of the higher classes. Custom decides generally in favor of "Thou." Students not resident in the gymnasial buildings, can not lodge in a tavern nor in any place where there will be more than ordinary temptations to excess, and all students must report their residence to the director. The cost of board at Büdingen, until within a few years, was 100–120 fl., now 130–160 fl.; in most of the other cities, 200–300 fl.; in the teachers' families, somewhat more. The vacation, amounting to 10–12 weeks, vary in the different institutions, but there is usually a long vacation of 3–4 weeks twice a year. Besides a private examination before the director and teachers at the close of the second term, there is also usually an annual public examination which is concluded with special festivities.

Two years' attendance at some one of the state gymnasia is required before one can be admitted to a final examination respecting his academical preparation and fitness to enter the state service, and this rule can be dispensed with by the higher directory only for weighty reasons. This examination is conducted by the teachers of the upper classes, and is always made at the gymnasium which the student has attended. It extends to all the subjects embraced in the course of higher gymnasial instruction. In Greek, the questions are generally confined to Homer, Xenophon, &c., though the more difficult authors are not excluded. In Latin, the examination must not be limited to what has recently been reviewed, neither should it be restricted to what the student has read, nor the more difficult authors be entirely omitted. A knowledge of the grammar, a correct and elegant translation, an acquaintance with the metres, and an explanation of the course of thought are required. The examination in the German language and literature extends over the most important periods of its historical development, and requires a knowledge and explanation of the classic writers, the principles of style, and the art of correct and elegant written and spoken discourse. For the papers to be prepared in the Latin, French, and German languages, material is taken from within the circle of the students' acquaintance,

that there may be a ready communication of thought respecting them without special preparation or assistance. There is here required a readiness of expression sufficient for scientific and practical use, without striking offenses against correctness and propriety. In geography there is expected a general knowledge of the earth's surface, and of its mathematical, physical, and political divisions. In history, a sure and firmly impressed knowledge of the principal periods, events, names, and dates, is indispensable, and it is also expected that the student will be prepared to state, orally and in writing, the connection of the most important events in respect to their causes and results, and the prominent characteristics of all periods and noted personages. In mathematics, the examination should be directed to the studies of the upper class and extend to progression, logarithms, equations of the second and third degrees, plane and spherical trigonometry, and conic sections. In natural history, there is required an acquaintance with the general classification of natural objects and of their distinctive characteristics, as well as with the principles of natural philosophy so far as is necessary to the understanding of the most important phenomena of nature. According to the results of the examination, the students are classed into four grades—the first signifying distinguished merit; the second, decided merit; the third, equal merit and demerit; the fourth, decided demerit. To the first two grades the right of admission to the University is unconditional, and upon the attainment of one of these is dependent all claim to stipends from the state, free board, &c. To students of the third grade admission to the University is conditional. No special privileges attach to the completion of the gymnasial course, except that only students of the higher class can be admitted to this examination.

4. *Teachers.*

Candidates for teacherships must have completed the gymnasial course. Their examination is conducted by a board at Giessen consisting of the university professors of philosophy, ancient languages, history, Oriental languages, and pedagogy. They require (excepting teachers in the special branches) a thorough acquaintance with the Greek and Latin languages, mythology, antiquities, &c., some familiarity with the Hebrew and Sanscrit, a knowledge of ancient and modern history, the pure mathematics, &c. To supply in some measure the want of a teachers' seminary, a year's trial is required, occupied at first in attendance during the instruction of other teachers, and then in teaching under the guidance of a director or teacher, and thus by advice, encouragement, or censure, he is initiated into the right methods. His appointment by the grand duke follows his nomination to office by the higher directory.

In Darmstadt and Mayence the salaries are highest, the directors receiving 2,000–2,400 fl. and their house-rent; the older teachers, 1,400–1,600 fl.; and the younger, 800–1,000 fl. In Büdingen, they receive from 700 to 1,500 fl. One fourth of these salaries is paid in natural products, which, with some restrictions, are commuted at current prices.

The gymnasial system of Hesse is not inferior to that of any other country; but the plan of instruction demands more than the gymnasia are able to do, especially in the study of mathematics. The laws need revision. The gymnasium at Darmstadt should not be favored above others, and a classification of teachers in respect to their time of service, without regard to the different gymnasia, would certainly be a measure of justice and equity. The want of emulation and of an eager, scientific spirit among the students that is often complained of, calls also for relaxation in the now too strictly drawn rules of discipline.

III. THE REAL AND TRADE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The first real schools in Hesse were established at Darmstadt and Mayence about thirty years ago, both poorly organized, and with, at first, only two classes. Previously, those who wished to obtain a better education than that of the common schools without entering the university, attended the gymnasia as "German scholars," being excused from the study of Greek and Latin. In connection with the school at Darmstadt, a mechanic school was founded in 1822, which received 500 fl. annually from the state. In 1834, in response to an offer from the chambers of 8,000 fl. annually to each of the principal capitals towards the establishment of better endowed and organized real schools, the cities obligated themselves for a like amount, and also assumed the expense of school grounds and buildings, teachers' salaries, and fuel. The three schools were opened in 1834–7. A Higher Trades' School also was soon afterwards established at Darmstadt for advanced industrial education and preparation for all those occupations and arts which are dependent upon the natural and mathematical sciences and graphical dexterity. The progymnasia at Offenbach and Michelstadt were at about the same time changed into real schools, and the cities of Algei, Bingen, Biedenkopf, and Alsfeld, under the encouragement of state appropriations, founded similar institutions. At Friedberg, there had existed, since the Reformation, the "Augustin School," as a kind of gymnasium; this was changed in 1838 to a "model school," in connection with the Teachers' Seminary, and finally was resolved into a real school. The schools at Mayence and Bingen are Catholic, those at Worms and Algei are mixed, and the others evangelical, but the sectarian influence is less strong than at the gymnasia. At Offenbach many Jews attend. The tuition fees vary from 12 to 24 florins.

The scholars attending these schools are drawn from all ranks, especially from the mercantile and trades classes. Most of them immediately after their confirmation, commence their apprenticeships, and many also enter the Trades' School at Darmstadt for farther instruction in mathematics, forestry, &c. The three provincial schools are fully organized with seven or eight teachers, besides the director; the rest have only three classes and two or three teachers, with assistant teachers as may be necessary—making a total of fifty-four teachers. The expenses

amount to about 55,000 fl., ($2,800,) including 23,500 fl. received from the state, and 3,000 fl. from endowments. The total attendance amounts to over 1,300, of which Darmstadt and Mayence have each about 300, Offenbach over 200, Friedberg and Bingen about 100, &c.

The requisites of admission are ten years of age, ability to read and write correctly, and a knowledge of the four rules of arithmetic as applied to simple and compound numbers. The studies are distributed as follows:—

SUBJECTS.	CLASSES.—*Hours per Week.*			
	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion,	4	3	2	2
German,	4	4	3	2
French,	5	4	4	4
Mathematics,	6	6	6	6
Natural Philosophy,				3
Nat. History and Chemistry,	2	2	3	4
Geography,	4	3	2	
History,			4	3
Drawing,	2	3	4	4
Writing,	3	2	2	
Singing,	3	2	1	1
English,			3	3
Embossing,				3

This plan, however, is modified, as Darmstadt and Mayence have six classes; Offenbach, with its preparatory school, has seven; and the smaller schools but three.

Religious instruction includes biblical history, with the committing to memory of texts, hymns, and portions of the catechism, church history, the doctrines of religion and morality, and explanations of the most important parts of the gospels, the Acts, and epistles. Where there are classes for scholars that have been confirmed, a preliminary view of the Scriptures is followed by a somewhat extended history of religion and the church, more thorough doctrinal instruction, and an explanation of the influence of the Christian belief upon the life. In the Trades' School at Darmstadt, the life of Christ is studied in connection with the prophecies and with reference to the prevalent forms of scepticism, together with the history of religion and the church, and lectures upon the Bible. At Worms and Mayence special instruction is provided for the Jews by their own rabbins.

Latin is taught three or four hours weekly to two or three divisions of the students so far as to translate Cæsar and easier extracts from Cicero. Instruction in French is very much as at the gymnasia, particular attention being paid to mercantile correspondence. English instruction is given to scholars over twelve years of age, with practice in conversation. Greek is taught, two hours a week, at some of the schools which prepare pupils for the gymnasium. German is taught as at the gymnasia, but with stricter attention to the requirements of business. History is com-

menced after some previous study of geography, at first biographical—afterwards more ethnographical and pragmatic; chronological tables are prepared and committed to memory, and attempts made at historical composition. Geography is taught as much as possible in connection with history, and without giving too much importance to names of places and statistical facts, more attention is paid to industrial and commercial characteristics; maps are drawn and geographical tables prepared. Natural history is studied in the lower classes; the higher classes also join in botanical excursions, and advantage is taken of the extensive gardens of Giessen and Darmstadt. The mathematical course includes involution, equations of the first and second degrees, arithmetrical and geometrical series, logarithms, and their application to the calculation of compound interest and annuities. In the higher class, two hours are also given to book-keeping. Instruction in geometry extends to the measurement of solids, trigonometry, geometrical drawing, and the forming of geometrical figures of pasteboard. The laws of physics and chemistry are illustrated by experiments, for which the larger schools possess sufficiently complete sets of apparatus as well as laboratories. At Giessen and Mayence three hours are given to modeling, as well to awaken a talent for the art as for the benefit of those occupations in which a taste for ornament is needed. The scholars at Darmstadt have the benefit of the instruction in modeling that is given at the Trades' School. Special attention is given to ornamental and architectural drawing, drawing from nature or models, taking impressions in plaster, &c. Discipline is rendered more difficult from the fact that the scholars are from different and unequally educated districts.

The Higher Trades' School (Gewerbeschule) at Darmstadt is peculiarly organized. It consists of two "general classes," so called, and four "department classes," viz., of applied chemistry, applied mechanics, architecture, and engineering. For admission to the general classes, the student must be sixteen years of age and well acquainted with the studies of the higher class of the real school, or of the three higher gymnasial classes. The course of study is as follows:—In the lower class, arithmetic and algebra; surveying, the measurement of solids, plane and spherical trigonometry; descriptive geometry; sketching—each of these divisions four hours in the week—chemistry, history, and geography; English, French, three hours each; German, religion, botany, zoölogy, two hours each. In the second class, analytical geometry, descriptive geometry, sketching, experimental philosophy, four hours each; chemistry of the metals, three hours; algebraical analysis, two hours; history, German, French, English, and religion, as in the lower class. An examination is held at the close which authorizes admission to the department classes, or to the institution for instruction in the management of forests, or to the university for the prosecution of the study of finance, the higher mathematics, and natural science. The tuition fees amount to 30 fl. yearly. The attendance in both classes is 70–80.

The course of study in the department classes transcends the limits of ordinary school instruction, and a further account of them would be therefore here out of place.

About one-third of the teachers have received no formal training, while many of them have been educated at the teachers' seminaries. Their examination is made by a special committee at Darmstadt, and either extends to embrace all the studies of the real school, or is limited to single departments. In other respects, the position of the teachers is much the same as at the gymnasia, except that their salaries are somewhat less, ranging from 500 to 1,200 fl.

The real schools of Hesse have always enjoyed a large measure of public favor; still they are not free from defects, the chief of which arises from the want of a more general and thorough system of training for teachers. Though technical ability in each branch is a prime requisite, yet a system of specially trained department teachers must weaken the educational energy and force of the institutions. The smaller schools have proved themselves of but little worth, and it would be better for the several towns were the money now expended upon these, to be used in the improvement of common schools. There is less disposition on the part of government now than formerly to establish new ones.

IV. HIGH SCHOOLS FOR FEMALE EDUCATION.

The first school of this kind was founded at Darmstadt in 1829, with three classes and five teachers, beside drawing and music teachers, and a female teacher of needlework, &c., and with 45–50 pupils in each of the five divisions. The usual branches are taught, together with French and English and the history of literature. The teachers are mostly theological students. There are similar institutions at Giessen and Offenbach, and there are also female schools attached to the real schools at Offenbach and Biedenkopf. Besides these, there are many private institutions—three at Darmstadt, with 90–95 pupils; ten at Mentz, with 20–130 pupils; three at Giessen, &c. A very flourishing school was early established at Worms. The tuition fees vary from 30 fl. to 50 fl., or more. Education after confirmation is usually completed at boarding-schools or in private families in the large cities. There are several institutions for the purpose in Darmstadt. Instruction is given in history, the history of literature, composition, religion, arithmetic, and French; but their methods and arrangement are various. One thing is certain, that Hesse participates in the error of the age respecting female education. Too great stress is laid upon the culture of the intellect, whereby the culture of the heart too often suffers, and, still more, her preparation for woman's true office as a capable housewife.

V. ORPHAN ASYLUMS, RESCUE INSTITUTIONS, ETC.

Orphan Asylums.—There has long been at Darmstadt an asylum for poor orphans, but the evils attendant upon the bringing up of so many

children together, caused the government, in 1824, to require that orphans should be placed in charge of respectable Christian families of their native place, if possible, under a contract of the pastor and burgomaster, approved by the district council and directors of the asylum. The pay for each child is 40–50 fl. annually, until his confirmation, for which its foster-parents provide for all its ordinary wants; in case of sickness, there is extra compensation for the physician and medicine. It is the duty of the pastor to see that he receives religious instruction, and is sent regularly to school. If necessary, assistance may be rendered them after apprenticeship for the purpose of obtaining clothing. The number of children thus supported is 1,900–2,000, at an annual expense of 57–58,000 fl. ($24,000.) In 1854 there was also paid 5,907 fl. in support of 101 apprentices. Of this, the state pays 49,718 fl.; the income of the orphan's fund, 3,583 fl.; contributions taken semi-annually in the churches, at weddings, baptisms, &c., about 9,000 fl., &c. In 1845 the benefits of the asylum were extended to Jewish children.

This system has received much censure; but if the pastors and burgomasters perform their duty in the choice and oversight of the foster-parents, such family training is certainly to be preferred to that of an orphan-house. Indeed, how would it be possible to provide for 1,900 children in special institutions for the above-mentioned sum?

There is one *rescue institution* in each province—at Arnsburg in Upper Hesse, at Hähnlein in Starkenburg, and at Jugenheim in Rhenish Hesse. Each has ten or twelve acres of land, and from thirty to forty inmates. The girls are usually provided for in private families. The average expenses of each child are 90–100 fl., sometimes defrayed in part by the parishes, otherwise by charitable contributions, for which collectors may be sent out through the country. These institutions are under the superintendence of the school authorities, and are frequently visited by them. The studies pursued are those of the common schools.

The number of *the blind* in Hesse is about 450. An asylum for their benefit was opened in 1850, at Friedberg, with one pupil, by Schläfer, a former teacher of the deaf and dumb. There are now usually thirty to thirty-five pupils, whose ages range from seven to thirty. Twelve have been discharged as sufficiently educated, and are now able to support themselves. The institution provides employment and secures a sale of the articles manufactured. For some years, agriculture has been attended to with success. About 1,800 fl. are received for board, 300–400 florins from proceeds of sales, 3,000–4,000 fl. from charitable contributions. The expenses amount to about 5,400 fl., or 180 fl. for each pupil. Besides the director, there are engaged an assistant teacher, a trades' instructor, a female teacher, and an assistant matron. Religious instruction is given by a candidate for the ministry.

The first state institution for the *deaf-mute children* was established at Friedberg in 1837, for the purpose of enabling the students of the theological and teachers' seminaries to practice deaf and dumb instruc-

tion. Roller, who had previously been at the head of a private institution of his own founding, was made director, and provided the necessary corps of teachers. One-fourth of the board (145–150 fl.) was paid by the parishes or parents, the remainder by the state. Children were provided for in families at an expense of 60–70 fl. In 1840 another institution was founded at Bensheim, for Catholic children. Teachers are now appointed by the state, and a fund has been provided for assisting discharged pupils in acquiring a trade or suitable occupation. At Friedberg there are now seventy-two pupils, at Bensheim fifteen, towards whose support the state contributes 12,000 fl. and the parishes about 2,000 fl. The method of speaking aloud has been introduced into both institutions.

There are twenty-four public institutions for infants, with about 1,500 or 1,600 pupils.

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III. THE PROBLEM OF EDUCATION,*

AS COMPREHENDED UNDER THE THREEFOLD RELATIONSHIP OF MAN TO NATURE, TO SOCIETY, AND TO GOD.

BY J. M. GREGORY,
Superintendent of Public Instruction, of Michigan.

I HAVE assigned myself, in this Address, a triple task. In the *first* part, I propose the somewhat audacious attempt to make a new and exhaustive statement of the problem of Education. In the *second*, I shall apply my statement to the criticism of the educational theories heretofore proposed among men. And, finally, I shall attempt to deduce from my statement a true theory of Education.

He who would unfold an acorn, must needs rear an oak. Such is its preappointed form and destiny. He may make the oak grander and more beautiful by skilful culture, or may blight and belittle it by neglect; but no care or culture can change it to a willow, or enable it to produce apples or grapes.

From an eagle's egg can come only an eaglet. No careful incubation can hatch therefrom the owl or the goose, nor can any skill in training rear the young bird of prey to become a swimmer in the waters, or to mouse for its food in the dim twilight.

What the Creator designed each species of creature to be, that it must grow to be, — each one "after his kind," — full-orbed and fruitful, if wisely and naturally reared; dwarfed, distorted, and unproductive if violent or rude hands attempt to bend it from its prescribed rank and place. From the acorn, the oak, — from the egg, the eagle, — from the child, the man; — such is the voice of destiny, the Divine end of development, — of Education, which is only another name for development.

* Read before the National Teachers' Association, at Chicago, Aug. 6, 1863.

And here we reach the first and most general statement of the great *problem* of *Education*, the chiefest problem of human history and human progress. It is summed up in the two grand, hemispheric words DESTINY, DEVELOPMENT; — *destiny* its limiting *law*, *development* its constructing *force*; destiny its prescribed path and culminating end, development its methodic march and progressive fulfilment. For education is a development, not merely into some ideal roundness of form, some theoretic harmony of parts; but, better and grander than all this, to preappointed ends and uses, — to preordained relations and duties, — in one great word, to Destiny.

Holding in our hands the light of this broad general statement, and moving forward to a closer and minuter analysis, the problem we are studying is seen to be not simple but complex, separating into sections which are themselves mighty subordinate problems; that it is indeed not a single question, but threefold, its subdivisions answering to the three great fields of human relations and duties.

1. If we may borrow from mathematics a figure which fits but loosely, indeed, to this metaphysical question, the problem of Education is a problem of three unknown quantities, and demands for its solution the resolution of three independent equations. The *first* equation (to continue a figure which will help me to set the great correspondent facts more clearly over against each other) shows us, on the one side, a CHILD — an infant being, with its germinal intellect, sensibilities, and will, — its physical organization, powers, and needs. Over against this child, stands, as a related quantity, as a sort of second member, the universe of beings, facts, and truths, — Nature, with its substances, forms, and forces, its life, sciences, and laws. It is the living being confronting the appointed fields of its life. On this side the growing germ, on that, the prepared soil for its growth; here the heir, there the appointed inheritance; here the unfolding powers of muscle and mind, there the destined theatre and materials for their work; here the future toiler, there the coming toil; here the possible thinker,

the dawning intelligence, there the unmeasured domains of knowledge and truth. It is, in brief, the child in his simple personality that is before us, — the child revealed in those purely individual relations to the world around him that the first man of our race had ere a companion was given him, and such as every human being holds independent of his fellow-men.

And here, our problem is to discover the natural method and full measure of culture and nourishment by which the child may be reared into a sort of responsive equality with Nature, — which may, indeed, fit him to fill out the full round of his duties and destinies in Nature, as its servant, interpreter, and lord. The work of education, under this statement, is simply to develop childhood into a full-grown, active, and healthful manhood, that it may be able to understand and use Nature for its pleasure and support, and may dwell on the earth a wise, powerful, regal soul. Fitting the individual man for his solitary sphere, its mission would end.

2. But there are other relationships lying within the great circle of human destiny. We have traversed only the smallest and lowest segment of that circle when we have observed man as a mere child of nature. Our problem, therefore, advances to still higher questions, and demands, for its solution, other statements, — another equation.

In this second equation, we find again in the first member, the CHILD, — the infant citizen, with his social powers and wants, — his social sympathies, affections, aspirations. On the other side, stands *Society*, — the world of mankind, with its families, brotherhoods, nationalities, and states, — its social order and ideas, — its constitutions, laws, and civilizations, — its trades and commerce, — its arts, schools, churches, and homes, and all the many sided life of communities of men. We have here the dawning man placed over against the aggregated humanity; — on this side, the yearning, loyal, loving soul; on that, friends, family, country; — here the speaking tongue, there listening ears; here the possible brother, friend, parent, patriot, citizen,

subject, sovereign; — there the great organized mass of human kind in whose families, fraternities, nationalities and states the possible may become the actual; the rich endowment of powers may ripen into a still richer fruition.

And here, the question of our problem is to determine the fitting food and training for that growth which may make the child equal to his social destiny. Education has here for its work, to rear the infant being into the mature member of society, to inspire him with the great social virtues of justice and benevolence, to train him to social arts, to arm him with social powers and knowledge, and to crown him with social grace. It is to train the tongue for eloquent speech, the ear for intelligent hearing, the mind for communion with kindred mind, the hand for useful arts and co-operative work; to lift the helpless child into the large-hearted and helpful citizen, fitted for a life of liberty and law, educated to keep step with the grand march of society. How large and grand is this problem of social education can only be shown by an analysis too broad for the limits of this Address.

3. But there remains another field of human relations. Let us advance to the last and grandest segment of the great circle of man's preappointed destinies. Our third equation, to which we now come, — a noble and divine equation, of vast inequalities, — exhibits again, on the one side, the CHILD, but now gifted with immortality, endowed with an inextinguishable religiosity, filled with innate and inappeasable cravings for the infinite and the divine, and fired with hopes, fears, and faiths which transcend both time and sense. On the other side is GOD, standing in the midst of his divine providences and government, commanding love, service, and worship. It is the conscious creature standing before his infinite Creator; here the infant soul, — the born subject of a divine government, and the perpetual dweller in a divine household, hungering for the guidance of an unerring wisdom and for the bliss of a perfect love, — there the all-enveloping presence of the Supreme Ruler, and the heavenly Father of all; — here the kindling of an immortal

life, whose highest need is God himself, and there the Divine Love offering itself as the supreme good and last end of its creatures.

How grand the question which the confronting quantities in this equation involve! To find the laws and agencies by which this divine culture is to go on, — the "nurture and admonition of the Lord" by which the child is to be reared up to the height of this divine destiny, and to be fitted for the fulfilment of these sublime duties, — this is the last and highest problem of education. Its work is only ended when out of the germ of a weak and ignorant childhood, it has developed a God-fearing, God-loving and God-like manhood. For who can deny that this also is within the province of education, and one of its necessary aims? It matters not by what aids of supernatural grace, or by what lessons of a divine experience, it may be begun or continued, the process is essentially educational. It is a cultured development, unfolding by regular stages and fixed laws into a mature growth.

Such then is the triple problem of education; such the grand trinity of questions it presents for our study. We recapitulate them: —

1. To train the infant heir of nature and truth up to his inheritance of knowledge and power.

2. To rear the child-citizen up for society and the world of mankind; and

3. To train man for God and fit the soul for its heavenward duties and destinies.

The *first* regards the child as a simple independent being, having faculties fitting him to live in nature, and to comprehend and use it. The *second* contemplates him as a member of society and gifted with powers fitting him to live in the world of men. The *third* recognizes him as having native powers designed to make him a worshipper of God and an heir of heaven.

Educated under the *first* statement, man would be but a splendid savage, a glorious child of Nature, wise in Nature's

learning, stalwart in natural strength, but uncrowned with *social* grace, and empty of immortal hopes. Educated according to the *second*, he would be the man of the world, — courtly, urbane, sagacious in affairs; an orator, a patriot, a statesman, perhaps, — but shut in to the narrow realms of time and sense, and uninfluenced by those celestial lights and attractions which lift the soul into the regions of the heroic and divine, and link it by immortal hopes to all the great future, thus guarding it against the errors and corruptions of the present, and fortifying it to endure without fainting the inevitable toils and sorrows of its earthly state. Educated in the *third* view, man becomes allied to God and his government; his life is no longer an unmeaning riddle, but a sublime revelation, — a foretaste and prophecy of the grander life to come. Lights of heavenly wisdom now play on his path, and motives of superhuman power move him to action.

Under the *first*, he learns to take care of himself; under the *second*, he is taught to act also for society and his fellow-men; under the *third*, he rises to the full grandeur of an incarnate soul, and becomes a co-worker with Deity, in plans whose wide sweep embraces the universal well-being, and blends the brief and fragmentary histories of earth with the mighty biography of God.

It remains, now, to show that these three great spiritual quantities, — the child's relations to Nature and Truth, to Society and to God, — all enter into the problem of Education; that they exhaust it, and that its complete solution forbids that either shall be left out.

And first and foremost, in this demonstration, stands the testimony of the Great Teacher, who taught as never man taught. In the two great commandments, — "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart," and "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," — thy neighbor *and* thyself, — he groups, under the three heads I have named, the essential relations of human life and the whole duty of man. For what do these wonderfully comprehensive commandments mean but to

bid the soul to hold, as its three high centres of love and regard, *itself*, *Society*, and *God*; — God first and highest? And how shall a man fitly fulfil this duty to *himself* but by growing up to his preappointed place and stature in nature as a wise, active, rejoicing soul? — how to his *neighbor* — that is to Society — but by being educated into a true and perfect member of society; and how show supreme love to God but by seeking to fill out the full measure of his relations to the Divine Being and government? Beyond debate, the Saviour, in these two great laws of life, defines the three grand fields of human relations and duties, and in them embraces the entire sphere of man's development. We have, then, the witness of inspiration to the truthfulness of our statement.

Shakespeare, whose knowledge of mankind seems little short of inspiration, presents, under another form, almost the same view. In his address of Wolsey to Cromwell, the fallen minister charges his secretary, as his great and comprehensive rule of right and duty, —

> "Let *all* the ends thou aimest at be thy country's,
> Thy God's, and Truth's."

As if he had said, God, Society, and thy soul's loyalty to truth, — these are the grand and all-comprehending aims of thy life.

But there is an evidence nearer and clearer to us all, — lying in the very centre of our consciousness. Let one imagine himself alone in the world, living a solitary life, separate from fellow-men, and ignorant of God. How many relationships, physical and mental, still bind him to the world he lives in, — to the great solitary Nature whose magnificent works, and laws, and forces rise and rule around him! How much of education — of knowledge and culture, strength and skill — he needs, to live safely, wisely, happily, in the solitude! What a field for labor and for life still invites his efforts!

But now let mankind appear, and human society, with all its complex, social, commercial, and political organizations, and its ten thousand busy pursuits, enter the scene; — who does not feel that a new and grander field of relations is opened before

him; that a new and nobler section of his nature is called at once into exercise, and that a new and higher education is needed to fit him for his new circumstances and duties? How wide the range of activities and needs revealed, how vast and varied the new powers called into action, and how inadequate the education of the solitary for the social man!

But now, finally, let the Divine Being and his government reveal themselves over the whole scene; let time be seen linked to eternity, and life blending with immortality; let man's relations to his Creator come into magnificent view, and God's vast moral government be seen in wide and resistless play throughout the world, — and who does not at once perceive rising around him a whole realm of divine relations and duties, calling into action another and the grandest section of his sensibilities and powers? At once there comes the demand for another and higher stage of culture — a grander unfolding of thought and wisdom — to fit us for this sublimer life. A loftier learning, a new and richer education, is needed to lift the citizen of Society into the servant and worshipper of God.

Thus, starting from the solitary soul in the midst of Nature, and moving upward by successive stages to Society and to God, we feel, at each step, the birth, as it were, of a new nature within us, demanding, for its guidance and well-being, to be educated to its work. And just because the last step leads us up to the infinite and the divine, it closes the series; there can be no other.

What a weight of confirmation do these views borrow from the words of Royer Collard, the great scholar, whom Cousin pronounces "one of the greatest philosophers of the present age." Mark these words: "Human societies are born, live, and die upon the earth; there they accomplish their destinies. But they contain not the whole man. After his engagement to Society there still remains in him the nobler part of his nature, — those high faculties by which he elevates himself to God, to a future life, and to the unknown blessings of an invisible world."

Finally, it is evident, that although the development of each

of these three departments of man's nature admits of a separate study, yet they all enter as elements into the one great problem of education. In the full and final solution of this problem, no one of these elements can be omitted, any more than, in the algebraic operation from which we have borrowed our principal figure, — the solution of a problem of three unknown quantities, — you can obtain a definite answer without a combined consideration of all the three equations. You may study each equation as a separate statement of some particular fact or truth involved in the question, but you must combine all before the final solution will appear. As well build detached colonnades for some great temple, without any reference to the architect's plans, or the final uses of the structure, as to attempt to educate the great, temple-like nature of man without regarding the plans of the Divine Architect, or the destinies of the soul. If, as I at the outset assumed, "Destiny is the limiting law of development," then whatever element God has put into human destiny must find its place in human education. *Man can only be successfully educated for the purposes for which he was created.*

I need not tarry here to demonstrate the vast importance of these great fundamental principles. If true, then no truths are mightier or more significant in all the realm of educational philosophy. They sweep the entire field of educational science. They afford the unerring clue for the discovery of every truth; they reveal the certain test for the trial of every theory. They exhibit the universal laws of human culture, — laws simple and wonderful as the great law of gravitation, and, like that, of resistless power and prevalence. A detailed analysis, such as only a volume could compass, of the responsive relationships in these three great departments of human life, would tell how grandly they comprehend and explain the problem of education.

If it be urged that this great field of destinies is too broad and uncertain to furnish a practicable basis of educational philosophy, I reply that it is not only as certain and definite as any other, but that it comprehends in itself all other bases, and gathers in its lines the light of them all. Viewing the Child as placed over against Nature, Society, and God, and as having

faculties and functions related to them all, his destinies necessarily involve, and in a true natural order reveal all the correspondences that exist between his nature and the natures to which he is thus related. The natural development of faculties and the natural order of knowledges are but the two parallel sides of destiny. It necessarily involves and explains both.

But better and more emphatic still, this field of destiny and duty is the only one of the bases of educational philosophy on which revelation and experience cast their unerring light. The Bible nowhere reveals to us the secrets of mental philosophy, nor the logical sequences of science; but it does declare the great aims of human life, and gives us, in the Christ, the true pattern of the perfect man. And what is human history but a series of exemplifications of human capabilities? The great artists, poets, orators, statesmen, saints, sages, and heroes, — the world's great men, — all reveal the possibilities that slumber in human nature in these several spheres. They outline in no mean or dim proportions the ideal destiny of man.

Leaving here the direct discussion, let us move forward to the second division of our proposed work. Let us apply the principles evolved as a test to some of the theories of education heretofore broached among men. If we fail to demolish any errors, we shall at least subject our own views to the best test of their strength by exhibiting them in conflict with other opinions.

Most of the theories of education are merely systems of teaching, and concern themselves only with methods of instruction; not at all, or only by implication, with the great ends and underlying philosophy of education. Assuming some proximate aims, and guided by some commonly received maxims, whose truth they do not choose either to question or demonstrate, the whole problem is to them simply a question as to the shortest road to reach the goal of learning. Not a few teachers, indeed, contemn all thoughts of a philosophy of education as a metaphysical dream, and pride themselves on their "practical and common-sense views." Just as though there were no great laws of mental

growth; no eternal fitness in knowledge; no profound and controlling principles in man's nature and destiny!

Leaving these foolish empiricists wrapped in the thick mantles of their self-complacency, we advance to the line of grander souls whose clearer insight sees mighty laws underlying all phenomena, and seeks in philosophy to learn the all-comprehending truths. Newtonian spirits! their very conjectures honor God, while their discoveries open new doors in his universe of truth into which men and nations enter in triumph.

Tried by our tests, the errors of educational philosophies will fall under one of these two heads: First, Errors as to human destiny, — the preappointed ends or objects of human existence; and, Second, Errors as to the laws of development. For, since destiny, or destination, if the term be preferred, and development sum up all educational science, every fundamental error must lie against one of these.

Under the first head we have three prominent classes of errors, or errorists.

1. The first considers the child simply as related to nature, and as needing to be educated to perform his natural functions and obey the laws of nature. To the philosophers of this creed the first equation in our statement embraces the entire problem of education. To this class belong mainly Rousseau and Herbert Spencer.

2. The second class regards the child chiefly in his social relations, and plans an education that may fit him to play his part as a member of society. It does not, perhaps, wholly disregard his natural and individual needs, but, subordinating these to his wants as a citizen, it seeks to train him in social craft and wisdom.

3. A third but not numerous class would make education wholly religious, counting no relations as worthy of regard save those belonging to another world, and no knowledge useful but that of the Bible. To this error inclined the *Pietists* of the seventeenth century, and some in our own day.

The second grand division of errors springing out of false views of the means and laws of development also exhibits several

classes; but these will be better described in a detailed statement and criticism of some of the theories in which they appear.

[The somewhat voluminous historical statements and criticism of the educational theories of the schoolmen, the classicists, the humanitarians, the pietists, the philanthropists, &c., and of Milton, Rousseau, Locke, Pestalozzi, Herbert Spencer, and others, which were mostly omitted in the delivery, for want of time, are here omitted by the writer for want of space. They may hereafter be given to the public in another form.]

I come, finally, to the third and last division of the work I assigned myself in this discourse: to exhibit the outlines and main features of a theory of education, in accordance with the statements of the first part of the Lecture. The waning hour forbids more than an attempt to grasp, in a few comprehensive propositions, some of the leading thoughts in such a theory. To expound a complete philosophy of education is work for a volume, not for a few brief pages.

I have affirmed that the great governing and limiting law in education is to be sought in the preappointed uses and destination of the human powers, — that man must be educated to be what his Maker designed him to be, — that from the acorn can come only the oak. I have claimed, also, that the whole of this preappointed destiny and duty of man is comprehended in the three great fields of fact and relation exhibited in the *Child* confronting *Nature*, *Society*, and *God;* and that these, therefore, embrace the entire problem of human growth and culture; that all the elements of man's nature, and all the incidents of his destiny are met and provided for in these.

Entering now each of these great fields of human relations in turn, let us seek in each the natural history, so to speak, of the relations, and the philosophy of their development.

First, then, the child appears amid the scenes of nature with a duplex being, — body and mind, — the latter with its triple powers of thought, will, and feeling; and between him and the world into which he is ushered, there is found to exist the widest and minutest correspondence. For each faculty, physical or mental, there is a field of exercise; for each want, a supply; for

each power, a work; food for the stomach, vision for the sight, truths for the thought, joy for the heart; no faculty without its work, no field without its worker.

But now the question comes: Are all these wonderful correspondences arranged for mature minds alone; or are there also provisions for the child? Is nature a full-grown nature for full-grown men; or is there also a child-nature for children's souls? And more than this, is there any succession of steps in nature and truth to meet the successive stages in childhood's growth? In the answer to these questions lies the key to all true philosophy of education; for if the adaptations of the world he inhabits, physical and spiritual, thus run parallel with man's progress from infancy, through childhood and adolescence to manhood, then the very law of development is written in nature, and both the method and materials of education are fixed by the unvarying constitution of things.

The provisions in nature for the physical growth, I need not stop to detail. Many of them are matters of common remark. The fitting food furnished for the infant stomach, the soft cushioning of the childish frame to fit it for its long and helpless recumbency, the cartilaginous bones to render harmless its falls, the gradual hardening of these bones to meet the increasing strain of the strengthening muscles, the gradual changing and expanding desires and appetites which tempt the growing powers to wider fields, and all the successive physical changes precisely met by the successive adaptations of the world without, are too well known to needcomment. No more beautiful phenomena are exhibited in human life than the changes by which the boy's world becomes in due time the old man's world; and, happily to each, — to the boy and the old man, — it is found equally fruitful in joy, however varying in look, when enjoyed with a pure spirit and a sound body.

For the mental childhood the world offers similar adaptations. All the sciences begin in the cradle. In the simplest form observed by the child lies the beginning of both Natural History and Geometry. In its first conscious exercise of motion and force begin Natural Philosophy and Mechanics. In the watched

play of a sunbeam is read the first lesson in Optics and Astronomy. With the counted fingers begins Elementary Arithmetic. The first expeditions of the tiny pattering feet invade the realms of Geography and Geology, and the busy play of childish hands explore half a score of sciences. Even the metaphysical sciences are begun here. In the recognized word of endearment, or the familiarized call to food, both Language and Logic has a place; and Mental Philosophy begins with the first perception of thought or feeling read by the child in the mother's face. No pupil enters our public schools who has not already begun the study of every branch of knowledge, and acquired hundreds of facts in every one of the sciences. Every science, in its infancy, began with just such facts as these, — simple facts of sense; and centuries of observation and slow accumulation passed by, before the scientific formula was reached, and the underlying philosophies emerged to view.

Now, by precisely the same paths by which the race has reached the knowledge of science, must each child travel to the same attainment. They move, it is true, over a beaten road, and under the lead of experienced guides, and thus compass in months what it cost humanity ages to learn; but the path from ignorance to enlightenment must remain forever the same, beginning in perceived fact, and ending only in rational philosophies.

A true course of study, therefore, for the purposes of education, must consist, not in a succession of sciences, but in the successive stages of the same sciences. If the primary grade be employed in the observation of simple facts, a second grade will learn to classify and combine these facts; and only in the final grade will pupils study the principles and philosophy of the sciences.

Beautifully correspondent to this sequence in truths is the unfolding march of the mental faculties. First, the senses take the field, a pioneer corps, to explore the new territories of knowledge, and gather materials for the future works. The intellectual life of childhood lies all concentered in the senses. Next after these, the conception, memory, and association advance

to their work. The gathered facts of sense arrange themselves in groups and classes, and the secondary facts of resemblance and difference with the general notions of quality reveal themselves. Then the judgment and imagination appear on the field, the work of construction begins, and another and subtler class of truths is evolved. Practical principles and working laws are seized and applied, and the stage of the practical arts is reached. Finally, the riper reason comes into action, and marshals the rich array of facts and truths under comprehensive formulas and scientific generalizations, and mounts to the conquest of the great centres and citadels of truth, the ultimate and all-explaining philosophy.

Thus has nature provided successive grades of knowledge for the advancing intelligence; and thus, in exact correspondence, do the successive stages of mental growth answer to the logical unfoldings of science. Thus does destiny forerun development, and thus does development fulfil destiny.

How false, if all this be true, is that plan of study which would master entire sciences in succession, finishing one to its final philosophy, before learning the first facts of another; and how worse than foolish is that method of instruction which would advance, by the simple study of books, to the conquest of any science, through its definitions and descriptions, while the senses have never seen or recognized the simple natural facts that form its very substance! What wonder that the geologist and chemist of the schoolroom knows so little of the geology and chemistry of nature, or that the student of maps remains in pitiable ignorance of the real earth?

But there is another and not less vital law of education growing out of the views we have taken. The child is in the world not merely to study it, but to master it, — to work out his destiny in it; to nourish his soul with its knowledges, indeed, but also to win power and sustenance by the use of these knowledges. Deeds are the fitting crown, as they are the final confirmations of truth. "The knowledge that holds good in working, — cleave thou to that," says Carlyle; "for Nature herself accredits that, — says *yea* to that." "Doubt, of what-

soever kind, can be ended by action alone." How obvious, then, that all study of nature should be with this practical intent, and that the knowledge first sought should be of the things just about us, that we may solve the problems of our own daily experience; that we may come to the mastery, first of all, of nature in our own dooryard and domicile! Is it not a too common fault, even when education begins with the facts nearest home, that it is speedily led off, on the track of scientific generalizations, to remote lands and to facts dimly known to us only through the testimony of others, while our very hearthstones are full of unread riddles? We grow wise in other men's wisdom, but leave all unstudied and unsolved the problems on which health and happiness depend. I know, and consent to, much if not all that is said in favor of disciplinary studies; but of what value is that education that does not give us the eye quick to see, and the mind prompt and wise to meet the emergencies of our own every-day life?

But there is still another law of education lying inwrapped in our statement. Knowledge of nature, however complete or practical, does not fill out the measure of man's relations to nature. The intellect is not the only mental power concerned. Nature has her mighty laws commanding obedience, and her resplendent beauties to be admired, as well as her truths to be learned. The world is a home, as well as a workshop. "Mother earth" is something more than an empty epithet. There is a deep truth in it. Her great household is haunted with a thousand subtle sympathies that bind her children to her breast, and, as a clear-seeing poet has sung,—

> "To him who in the love of Nature holds
> Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
> A various language."

By what multiplied arrangements of summer heat and winter cold, of resistless storms, of slow-growing harvests, of endless changes, does Nature train the human will to a great and patient obedience; and by what ceaseless shows of glorious beauty does she seek to lift the human heart to a noble delight

in her mighty system of things! And what educational acquirement is more valuable than this love of Nature? How the soul lifts and expands under it! How the heart softens and grows purer and stronger by its ministry!

And even the intellect quickens to a higher activity and to a more penetrating power under this deep and reverent love. No great master of science can be found who is not also an enthusiastic lover of the fields he explores. With what evident delight did the pen of Hugh Miller linger over the descriptions of the landscapes and rocks; and how sublime the enthusiasm with which our own martyred and glorified Mitchell talked of the stars! And this is a part of destiny, and constitutes one of the forces of education. No element in a profound philosophy of human culture is more significant than this.

To sum up, in brief, then, the main doctrines we have reached in this first of the three great fields of education, I repeat, —

1. Education must proceed by such steps as God has established in the sequences of knowledge and in the answering stages of mental growth. This is the great predetermined path of development, and is the determining law in all true courses of study.

2. Education must keep abreast with the present circumstances and wants of the child, and maintain always its practical intent. As it is the labor and food which fill to-day's duties and desires, that fit for those of to-morrow, so it is at all periods the study and solution of the questions just about us which educate us to study and solve, when we reach them, the questions yet before us. Education, which begins always in experience never transcends a true experience. Knowledge sweeps outward towards the infinite only as the soul rises in its questionings towards this outer limit of thought.

3. Education must lead to the love and enjoyment of nature and truth. This is the mighty developing force by which all true growth and culture go on. The food forced into the stomach or taken only from duty, burdens rather than builds the body.

I cannot pause now to explain the wide applications or the fine agreements of these great laws, nor to show how a whole system of methods may be unfolded from them. Let us advance to another field.

Thus far we have been on familiar ground, and dealt *mostly* with common and received opinions. I enter now the territory embraced by my second equation, and find the child standing in the presence of society. We are now to inquire how this wonderful social nature may be reared up to fill its appointed place, and play its part in the great array and endless movements of society.

I shall not tarry to demonstrate that it is a proper and needful work of education to fit a child for social life. Social destinies imply and demand social development. It is true the wide-spread neglect of this branch of education in our public schools might be taken as a general confession of unbelief in its practicability; while the poor results of the ill-contrived efforts of certain fashionable schools to make their pupils adepts in social arts, might be counted as proof that social education *in* schools must be a failure. But the common sense of the world perpetually witnesses that man may be educated for society as well as for science. For in what does the civilized nation differ from the savage, if not in the higher social culture which its citizens have attained; and what prevents the civilized nation from sinking back into barbarism, but the education which each generation gives to its successors in the arts, customs, and *ideas* of its social state? And in what does the rude and uncultured boor differ from the cultivated and intelligent gentleman, but in that the boor is *rude* and *uncultured*, and the gentleman is *cultivated* and intelligent? Thus does our common speech witness to our common belief that social knowledge and power and grace are legitimate aims and familiar products of culture or education.

But if its practicability were far more doubtful than it is, *still* would its vast importance and urgent necessity demand perpetual efforts for its attainment. For, remembering that human society is of divine origin, being decreed in the constitution of things, and therefore of permanent existence; and remembering

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that so large a section of each man's powers is social that he cannot safely withdraw from society; and reflecting that, by virtue of these indissoluble bonds, there must ever be a close sympathy and a community of fate between society and its members; that if one member suffers all suffer with it; that the common weal is the weal of each, and the common woe is the woe of all; that the vices of the ignorant become disorders in the state, and that each citizen must suffer in his property and rights by every great evil that taints the body politic; and that, finally, the nations tremble under every blow dealt against an oppressed people; — pondering all this in the light of the comments of history and the facts of daily experience, how vital, both to the individual and to the state, seems the necessity of that education that shall teach mankind their relations and duties to society, and train and inspire them to the exercise of social virtues.

And if in the world at large this be true, how doubly impressive its truth in a land like ours, where every social faculty is free, and every social function, from the fireside to the forum, from the citizen to the sovereign, is open to each man; in the land where the people are not the "*Tiers Etat*," but the *entire state*, where, from voting people to President people, it is always and everywhere the people; and where, therefore, the real, if not the written, constitution of the government is the fixed sentiment and will of the people; in such a land how tremendous the need of educating men for society, and training the children of the state to the love and care of the state.

How terribly do the great troubles of the times, the fatal thunder-speech of this war, testify at once to the sad neglect and to the vital need of a truer education of the American people in the learning of social truths and social duties. God is sending us to this awful school to learn afresh the Declaration of Independence and the lessons of national morality.

It is true there are difficulties in the way of a true social education which do not meet us in the scientific. Two obstacles seem especially formidable. First, society itself is diseased, and full of false sentiments and practical evils which tend to neutral-

good order and obedience, and that the social sentiments of benevolence, justice, truth, and love of the public good be woven into the practical habits of the playground and schoolroom.

There are, indeed, positive sciences to be learned in this as in other education. Language, logic, history, moral philosophy and political economy, are all, in the main, social branches, and all needful to the full education of the good citizen. But these also begin with infancy, and are studied in their primary facts by every pupil that enters our schools.

And there is another department of positive inculcations, already hinted at, which are necessary to a true social education, and which our schools may teach. I mean the moral and social sentiments, the love of truth and justice, the love of liberty and right, the love of country and of man. History, past and present, is full of brilliant examples by which childhood may be stirred to the emulation of these great virtues; and daily readings in the schoolroom with daily practice in the school life will speedily establish these principles in the heart as an inspiring force, and work them into the habits as stable elements of character.

Of the training in the industrial and commercial arts, and of instruction in political duties, I can offer no discussion, though these also lie within the lines of social destiny, and hence of social education.

But I cannot pass thus lightly the training by which the child is to be fitted to enjoy society, to find happiness in its daily intercourse, and to grow up to grander power and beauty by its ministrations. Chief in this training is the exercise of a broad and generous sympathy with humanity itself, such as welds the soul to its kind and makes it a sharer in all the toils and triumphs of the race. But next to this ranks the power to influence society, and to contribute to the general happiness. In this consists the grandeur of the social life. And here lies the great value of the power of speech, the ability to talk, to tell without embarrassment and without painful effort, our experience and our thoughts, and win with an easy eloquence our way to the hearts of our fellow-men.

To sum up these hurried hints in some more formal statements: —

1. Social education, like scientific, must proceed by regular and natural steps, marked by the successive stages of society from its beginning in the family to its culmination in the state. The child born into society, must serve in all its grades, before he can be crowned with its final grace.

2. Social education, like scientific, must maintain always a practical intent, fitting the child for present duties and for life in his own country and times, avoiding the false and the temporary, and looking to the permanent and the true.

3. Social education should seek the well-being both of the individual and of society. In the social, as in the scientific, happiness is the impelling power in learning.

I can only advert to the evident truth that social education overlies and vitally interweaves with that which we have called scientific. It is not so much another education, as it is the same raised to higher uses, with an added section. To be a good citizen presupposes a healthful, intelligent, and happy man. All the learning of the solitary recluse is needed by the member of society. But social education lifts the scientific into nobler applications, and quickens it to a grander growth, by the added stimulus of these new aims. Nature unfolds to a sublimer significance when human society enters amid her scenes. Her riddles become revealed truths when read in the light of human needs. Thus the two equations combine in the solution, and become one. But both were needed for the full solution of the problem.

There remains the third and grandest chapter in my theme, the education of man on the religious and divine side, the last and highest realm of destiny. But my hour is already gone, and I must leave its discussion to those other and more favored hours to which I have been compelled to adjourn so many of the great fields which have opened along my main line of thought. I can only avow here my earnest belief in the possibility of such education, and reaffirm, with all the energy I can use, its vital importance and necessity. Beyond doubt there are laws and provisions, hidden in the divine order of things, for man's devel-

opment Godward, — Jacob's ladders, along whose graded steps we may mount heavenward. Certainly there is a natural order, — a true philosophy of education in this department also.

Doubtless there are obstacles in the way of any religious education, even more serious than those in the way of the social; but seeing all the difficulties, who dare pause? Safety and perfection lie beyond. In the great trinity of teaching, we cannot successfully leave the noblest and mightiest element out. As the scientific rises to a higher development in the social, so the social and scientific culminate and are complete only in the religious. Man, the thinker, reaches the summit of his thought only in the presence of the infinite. The last word in science is GOD. Man, the citizen, finds the ultimate bond of his social and political power in the common relation of all to the Father of all. And so the last word of society — of politics — is also GOD. Thus the thinker and citizen are only complete in the worshipper. Development ends only in destiny.

Let us now learn the parable of the planet. Not by the struggling forces pent in her own heart, does our mother Earth move through her orbit; but by the celestial attractions which reach her from above. Not by the light of fires kindled on her bosom, or bursting from her volcanoes, does she shine as a star in the heavens; but by the radiance of the glorious sun, whose light she borrows and reflects. Not by the warmth of her subterranean fires, does she melt the snows of winter from her breast, and robe herself in living green; but by the genial glow that falls upon her from on high.

So with the soul of man. Not by the power of selfish purposes can it rise to the sublime fulfilment of its destiny. Not by the knowledge born of its own reason, or gained by its own insight, can it light its way through the heavens of truth. Not by the warmth of self-inspired and self-seeking affections will it ever burst forth into the glory and fruitfulness of a beneficent and heroic life. Celestial motives must move it, heavenly wisdom must illuminate it, and a divine love must warm it, before it can rise from being a mere meteor soul shooting athwart the fields of life, to be a grand planetary soul shining in the skies of endless blessedness.

IV. THE JESUITS AND THEIR SCHOOLS.

I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

It is impossible to estimate rightly the schools of this famous Order without some knowledge of its history. All its institutions, both ecclesiastical and educational, are pervaded by one spirit, and have reference to a single and clearly defined end, the "conversion of heretics," and elevation of the church of Rome. We must, therefore, begin our inquiries with a brief historical survey of the circumstances, that called the Order or Society of Jesus into being, and determined the character of its development.

Its founder was Don Inigo Lopez de Recalde, usually known as Ignatius von Loyola, the youngest son of a noble Spanish family, and born in 1491. His youth was spent at the court of Ferdinand the Catholic, and he was early distinguished for the chivalric tone of his character, and his reverence for holy things, as well as for his proficiency in martial exercises, and for his courage. Being wounded at the seige of Pampelona in 1521, a wound which made him lame for life, he was taken to his father's castle, where he amused the weary hours of his confinement by reading tales of knightly adventures. But his attention was soon turned to the Lives of the Saints, and the records of their holy devotion, and heroic self-sacrifice, awakened in him a passionate desire to walk in their steps. With all the energy of his fiery nature, he consecrated himself to the service of the Blessed Virgin, to go forth as her champion and subdue the heathen to the obedience of the faith. At this time, and for many years later, he seems to have looked upon Jerusalem as the fitting field for his activity. So soon as he recovered from his wound, he clothed himself in a beggar's garb, and wandered over Spain, till reaching Barcelona, he embarked for Jerusalem. Here he was not permitted long to remain; and we soon find him again in Spain, endeavoring to supply the defects of his education by the study of grammar and philosophy. He was supported by alms, and devoted his time to the care of the sick. At this time his enthusiastic character, and the ecstacies and dreams and visions, of which he was

the subject, and his zeal in teaching, awakened the suspicions of the Inquisition that he was a member of some heretical sect, and he was imprisoned for forty days, and ordered to give up all discourse upon spiritual matters, for four years. This he would not do, and leaving Spain in 1528, fled to Paris. Here in the college of St. Barbara, he renewed his studies; and here he gathered around him those disciples, whose names afterward became so famous; Xavier, Faber, Lainez, Salmeron, Bobadilla and Rodriguez. These he bound together into a little society, and in August 1534, at the church of Montmartre, they took upon themselves the oaths of poverty and celibacy, and solemnly bound themselves to go, after the expiration of their studies, to Jerusalem, or if they could not do this, to put themselves at the disposal of the Pope, to go where he might choose to send them. The next year, (1535,) Ignatius returned to Spain.

In January 1537 the new society reassembled at Venice, strengthened by three new members. A war between Venice and the Turks making it impossible for them to go to Jerusalem, they employed themselves in the hospitals of the city, showing wonderful self-denial and patience, and in vigorous attempts to awaken a higher religious life in the hearts of the clergy. Here they received admission to the office of priests. After a time, leaving Venice, they came by different routes to Rome. Here they devoted themselves by day to the same labors among the sick and poor as at Venice, and at night they consulted together respecting the constitution and form of the new order. But it was some time ere the Pope was willing to give them the needed permission, it being then a question in the papal councils whether the number of monkish institutions should not rather be diminished than increased. It was not till August, 1540, that the *Society of Jesus* was formally authorized and established by a papal bull. The number of members was at first limited to sixty, but this restriction was, three years later, removed. The first step of the new order was the choice of a General or Chief, and all votes were given to Ignatius. It is a remarkable fact that he immediately after devoted himself, for several weeks, with all the ardor of his nature, to the personal instruction of children of the church. The office of General, Ignatius held to his death in 1556.

Before examining the internal organization of this society, let us follow a little way its external history. The labors of the Jesuits embraced three departments, preaching, confession, and education. Of the latter, Ranke remarks; "To this they thought of binding themselves from the first by a special clause in their vows, and although that was not done, they made the practice of this duty im-

perative by the most cogent rules. Their most earnest desire was to gain the rising generation." So small in its beginnings, the order very rapidly increased in numbers and influence. At the time of Loyola's death it had established itself in thirteen Provinces, of which seven were in Spain and her colonies, and three in Italy. Their schools and colleges were very soon found in most of the chief cities of Catholic Christendom. The *Collegium Romanum* was established at Rome in 1550, and the *Collegium Germanicum* for the education of German youth, in 1552. Other national colleges of the same general character soon followed,—one for the English, one for the Greeks, one for the Hungarians, &c. In 1551, Ferdinand established a college at Vienna; in 1554, one was founded at Coimbra in Portugal; in 1556, one in Bavaria; in 1559, one in Munich. Pope Gregory XIII, (1572—1585,) was very active in this way, and it is said that twenty-two Jesuit colleges owed their origin to him. In a very few years the education of the higher classes, and of the leading minds in all the parts of Furope that yielded allegiance to the Roman pontiff, was in the hands of the Society of Jesus.

But this activity was not confined to education. Their members were busy in every part of Protestant Christendom to which they could get access, striving to bring back the people to the old faith. And their missionaries went forth into all parts of the heathen world, converting idolaters, and establishing churches. In every department of religious enterprise, they were conspicuous among their brethren, and in most, the recognized leaders.

The rapid increase of the Order in numbers, and in educational influence, may be seen from the fact, that, beginning with a membership limited to sixty, in the year 1626 they numbered more than fifteen thousand, divided into thirty-nine Provinces, and possessing 803 houses, 467 colleges, and thirty-six seminaries. In 1710, they had 612 colleges, and twenty-four universities, besides a multitude of lower schools. In the middle of the eighteenth century their number amounted to more than 22,000, with 669 colleges, and 176 seminaries, and in France alone, they had almost 700 schools.

But, though thus successful, the Society of Jesus met, from the first, strong Catholic opposition in many quarters. Several of the other orders, especially the Dominicans and Franciscans, looked upon it with great jealousy and dislike. Many of the universities regarded their colleges as rival institutions, and were angry at the great favor showed them by the Pope, and princes, and nobility. And some of the Popes, even, feared its growing power and popularity. Very early, Paul IV, demanded that the General should hold

his office only for three years, and not for life as the constitution appointed, but the Jesuits resisted, and his successors yielded the point. Still it was felt by the papal councils that the power in his hands was excessive, and it was feared that it might be wielded to dangerous ends, a fear that time showed to be just.

To trace in detail the history of the Order would be foreign to our present purpose. Suffice it to say, that as it became numerous, rich and powerful, it lost in some measure its early religious character, and became ambitious and worldly. Its members drew upon themselves the hatred of kings and statesmen by their continual intermedling in political affairs, and by their attempts to make the authority of the church dominant over that of the state. For this cause they were banished from the territories of the Republic of Venice, as early as 1606. With increasing wealth came luxury, and many of the lay members engaged in traffic and commerce; the extensive ramifications of the order giving them great facilities for the successful prosecution of commercial enterprises. The Society thus became the owner of large factories in many parts of the world, from which rich revenues were derived. The richly endowed colleges became often banks of exchange. As the interests of the Order were held paramount to all other interests, they did not hesitate, notwithstanding the vows of obedience, to array themselves against the Pope, when they found it for their advantage. Thus gradually they lost the favor of all parties, and toward the close of the eighteenth century, the Society was driven out of all the Catholic kingdoms of Europe. Russia alone, moved by considerations of the educational advantages derived from them, offered them an asylum. In 1773, Pope Clement XIV, suppressed the Order. But though thus formally dissolved, the Society still kept up its organization in secret, and its members, though under other names, labored incessantly to regain their former position. It was not, however, till 1814, under Pope Gregory, that the decree of dissolution was repealed. Its history from that time has been varied, but it seems to have been slowly but steadily gaining in numbers and influence. In 1844, the number of members was estimated at 4,133, in 1855, at 5,510, in 1860, at 7,144. This latter number was thus divided; in France 2,181, in Belgium 531, in Holland 205, in Spain 680, in Austria 455, in Prussia 527, in England 379, in America 444, in Italy 1,742, and more than 1,000 at different missionary stations.

II. INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SOCIETY.

We turn now to the internal organization of the Society. This is simple and admirably adapted to the ends it had in view. All

power is concentrated in the hands of the head or General, (*Praepositus Generalis,*) who holds his office for life. He is elected by the members of the order, represented by delegates in General Congregation. This body can give him advice in particular cases, but can not control him in his actions. He is to the Order, what the Pope is to the church, the representative of God. "In him should Christ be honored as present in his person." The ultimate decision rests with him alone, and only in case of some very flagrant and gross abuse of his authority, can the General Congregation interfere to depose him. It should be said that hitherto no such deposition has ever taken place. This possession for life of almost absolute power, lifts the General above all fear of those under him, and makes it unnecessary to seek, by favoritism, or weak concessions to faction, a transient popularity. In the hands of a strong, sagacious man, it gives a stable character to the policy of the Order, and a unity and energy of action attainable in no other way. But his knowledge of the characters and capacities of its members must be commensurate with his power over them, to enable him to employ them with wisdom, and to this end he is the ultimate depository of all the secrets of the confessional. Thus he knows what is passing in the hearts of all under him, and can wisely choose his instruments, and adapt his measures to the end to be attained.

Under the head of the Order stand the chiefs of various provinces, or the Provincials, (*Praepositus Provincialis,*) who in their several jurisdictions represent him, and are responsible only to him. These hold their offices for three years. After them come the heads of Houses, the rectors of Colleges, and the superiors of the Residences, who also all hold their offices for three years.

Aside from these official distinctions, the members of the society are divided into four classes, the Professed, Coadjutors, Scholastics, and Novices. The latter are those who have sought admission to the order, and been accepted, and placed in one of the houses established for them, there to spend the two years of their novitiate in meditation and prayer, and in the performance of various specified labors, under the care of the master of the novices, (*magister novitiorum.*) Having successfully passed this period of probation, the novice enters into one of the colleges of the society, and becomes a scholastic. Here he gives five or six years to the study of grammar, and rhetoric, and philosophy, &c; and having completed the course, enters upon the work of teaching. As a teacher, he begins with the lower class, and teaches it in the same order of studies through which he himself has just passed. After five or six years thus spent, he

enters upon the study of theology, to which four or six years are given. Then a year is spent in the repetition of the spiritual exercises, and the probation of the novitiate; and at length at the age of 30—32, he is admitted into the priesthood.

Becoming a priest, the scholastic takes the oath either as a *coadjutor spiritualis*, or as a professed. The distinction between these two classes is this, that the former promises to devote himself with all zeal to the work of education, while the latter binds himself to execute any mission the Pope may intrust to him. Ranke in his History of the Popes, thus explains the way in which the distinction arose. "As the professed members had bound themselves by the fourth vow to continual travel on the service of the Pope, it was inconsistent to assign to them so many colleges as were now required, establishments that could only flourish through their constant presence. Ignatius soon found it necessary to constitute a third class, between the professed and the novices, spiritual coadjutors, priests like the others, possessed of requisite learning, and who expressly engaged themselves to the duty of instructing youth. These coadjutors were allowed to settle themselves in the several localities, become residents, gain influence, and control education." The professed constitute the smaller class, and are really the aristocracy of the order, since from their ranks only, can the General and the provincials be taken, and they are the authorized members of the General Congregation. Thus under the General, the law making power, and the chief offices, are in their power. When not employed in the service of the Pope, they reside in houses especially appropriated to their use.

The coadjutors, who are divided into several classes, some engaged in preaching and teaching, *coadjutores spirituales*, some in secular pursuits, *coadjutores temporales*, constitute, with the scholastics, the largest and most laborious part of the order. The care of the colleges, and of the schools, is almost wholly in the hands of the spiritual coadjutors, the lay coadjutors fulfilling other duties. By bull of Paul III, the society was authorized to elect lay members, to be employed in various kinds of secular labor, but who were not permanent members, the relation ceasing when their work was done.

There are two or three features in the constitution of this Order which at once arrest our attention, and which we must take into account if we would explain its success, or understand the character and working of its institutions. The first of these is the principle of implicit obedience. In none of the monkish orders is the principle carried so far as here. Each member must obey his superior

as he would obey God. So long as a command does not involve manifest sin, it is binding upon the conscience. *Superioris vocem ac jussu non secus ac Christi vocem.* The members must be in the hands of the chiefs as passive as if dead, (*ac si essent cadaver,*) or as a stick that yields without resistance to every motion of the hand that bears it. Not only the will, but the understanding was so to be brought into subjection, that the obedience should be both instantaneous and unquestioning. To obey, and not to reason, was a fundamental principle. By thus making one will to pervade the body, it was believed that there might be perfect unity in purpose and action, and the result showed the correctness of this belief. The boast of Cæsar that he had no soldier who would not leap into the sea at his bidding, might be truly made by the Generals of the Society of Jesus, but with this essential distinction, that the former obeyed from personal love to his chief, the latter because the command came clothed with divine authority.

The second feature to be noticed, is that each member was made to feel that the interests of the Order were paramount to every other interest. This had claims upon him superior to those of kindred, and friends, and country. He was taught to say, not "I have parents, and brothers, and sisters," but, "I had parents, and brothers, and sisters, now I have them no more." It is said of Faber, one of Ignatius' early converts, that on reaching his native town after an absence of some years, he would not stop to visit his kindred and friends, but passed on. This was deemed a highly meritorious act. He was to be dead to all other relationships of life, and alive only to those which bound him to the Society, He must be a true cosmopolitan, a sojourner, as he might be sent in any country, but a citizen of none. To the prosperity of the Order he consecrated all his energies, to it all things were made subordinate. It stood to him instead of all other objects of affection, of family, of kindred, of country. Of course this entire devotion pre-supposed that in serving the Order he believed himself to be serving the church, and God. Only thus believing, was it possible that such complete self-abnegation could so have gained the mastery.

It needs no observation to show that a body of men so wholly under the will of their chiefs, so dead to all considerations but that of the success of their Order, must have been potent allies, and dangerous enemies. All historians agree that their efforts stayed the progress of the Reformation, and rolled back the tide of conquest that threatened to sweep over all the Catholic countries of Europe.

III. EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES.

We turn now to the subject which especially interests us, the educational institutions of the Jesuits. As we have seen, from the very first existence of the Order, the instruction of the young had been made a cardinal point. Wherever its members went, schools and colleges, and universities, were rapidly established. In a short time the number of pupils under their care, in all parts of Europe, was very large. This rapid and great popularity was doubtless in considerable measure, owing to their zeal and energy, and to the fact that the existing schools were very imperfect, and far below the exigences of the times; but something is also to be ascribed to the intrinsic excellence of the system of education they adopted. This system received its definite and permanent form, under *Acquaviva, the fifth General of the order, who held office from 1581 to 1615, and a man highly distinguished for his administrative ability. The Congregation that elected him, recommended that a commission should be appointed of six fathers from the various Catholic kingdoms, who should draw up a plan of study, based in part, upon that followed in the Collegium Romanum. This commission was subsequently enlarged, and in 1599, made its report. The order of studies as then adopted, continued, with a few additions, to be the order till the dissolution of the society, in 1773. After its restoration in 1814, a new commission was appointed to revise it; but it was determined in General Congregation in 1820, that the former

*Claudius Acquaviva, the fifth General of the order, was born in the province of Bari, in southern Italy, on Sept. 14th, 1543. He was of a noble family, several members of which had highly distinguished themselves both in the service of the state, and of the church. A bright career was open before him, but he preferred, at the age of twenty-five, to enter into the Order of Jesus. Here he soon distinguished himself by his talents and learning, and was early made a Provincial, first at Naples, and then at Rome. He was elected General in 1581, at the age of thirty-seven. It is said that the selection of so young a man, excited the surprise of the Pope, but it was justified by the great abilities of Acquaviva, and the skill with which he managed affairs. His first care was to secure to the Order good leaders, not only virtuous men, but such as understood their position, and avoided extremes. The times were stormy, and he had to reconcile internal dissensions, and ward off attacks from without. His relations to Pope Sextus V, were often delicate, and he had need of the utmost caution not to bring about an open rupture. Sextus wished to change the constitution of the order, and make it more democratic, and less under the direction of the General, and also to withdraw the promised subsidies. By adroit managment, Acquaviva pacified the Pope, till his death freed the Order from the impending danger. He had also much difficulty in making the Spanish members of the Order obedient to his authority.

It is, however, as the author of the famed *ratio studiorum*, that Acquaviva is best known. He named in 1584, a commission of seven persons of various nations, the result of whose labors, is that course of study which remains in substance, in use to day in all the Jesuit schools.

Acquaviva died on the 31st, January, 1615, after a Generalship of thirty-four years. According to d' Alembert the Society of Jesus owes more to him than to any of its chiefs for its success in after times. The work which he did seems to have been this—that he harmonized the religious and political elements, and made the Order what it has continued to be.

order should not be essentially changed. Little, however, seems to have been done in the matter down to 1830, when * Roothaan, the General at that time, appointed a new commission. The changes made by this commission had reference mainly to the higher departments of study ,theology, philosophy, mathematics and physics. The ancient course of instruction in the lower departments was left unchanged, except in regard to modern languages and history. The reasons given for thus retaining a system which had seemingly become antiquated, will appear in the sequel.

So far as regards the external organization of the Jesuit schools, we find them to partake of the general character of all the institutions of the Order. No one not a member was permitted to teach, unless in some cases in the lowest schools. As has been already stated, every member after spending five or six years in study, was required to devote a like period to teaching. Thus all the teachers were not only members of the society, but had been educated by it, and were familiar with its methods of instruction. And in the giving of instruction, nothing was left to the choice or will of the individual teacher. Every thing, even to the details, was prescribed by the laws, and from these there could be no departure. And the same principle of implicit obedience ruled here as elsewhere. As it was a rule of the Order that it would not accept any college which did not, in addition to a dwelling, a school edifice, and a church, possess an endowment in money or lands sufficient for the support of at least fourteen persons, it was thus raised above the necessity of adapting its methods of instruction to popular tastes, or of imitating the schools around them. This enabled them also to make their instructions gratuitous, a circumstance that naturally tended much to their popularity. The care of these endowments, as of all merely business matters, belonged to the lay brethren.

Colleges.

The colleges were of three classes, according to the number of teachers. The first must, as a rule, have twenty, the second, thirty, the third, which ranked as a university, seventy. The general supervision of each college was given to an officer called a rector, usually taken from the ranks of the older teachers, but who himself took no part in the work of instruction. To him it belonged to appoint the teachers under him, to note the progress of the pupils,

* Roothaan was born at Amsterdam, Nov. 23d, 1785, elected General of the Order, 1829, and died 8th May, 1853. His activity was especially directed to three points; 1, Foreign Missions; 2, the promotion of scientific studies; 3, the more strict practice of the exercises of Ignatius.

and to watch over all that concerned the prosperity and usefulness of the institution. He was appointed by the General, or his plenopotentiary, and held his office for three years, and all must render obedience to him as to the representative of Christ. Under him were several officers who had special charge of the studies, and discipline of the pupils, and who were like himself, taken from the ranks of the spiritual coadjutors. With the colleges were generally united pensions, or boarding schools, in which pupils, especially those of rich and noble families, were received for a moderate compensation; and sometimes also seminaries for the education of priests. There were also in some cases day schools attended by youth, who boarded at home, and these were open to the children of Protestants under certain restrictions.

The course of study in these institutions divided itself into higher and lower; *studia superiora et inferiora.* The smaller colleges limited themselves to the latter, and to these we shall mainly here confine ourselves. The lower course of study occupies six years, which are thus divided: the first year is occupied with the school Latin, or the rudiments; the second, with grammar in its first elements; the third with syntax; all these are called the grammatical classes, The fourth year is occupied with philology and poetry, and the fifth and sixth years with rhetoric; the latter two are called the humanity classes. The subjects of study, the books to be used, the amount of time to be daily spent, and the methods of instruction, are all accurately prescribed, and can not be departed from.

The character of this course of study can be understood only by keeping in view the fact, that the knowledge of the Latin tongue was regarded by the Jesuits as of the first importance, and that all other knowledge was made subordinate to this. The ability to speak it and write it with correctness and fluency, is constantly held up before the pupils as the chief end of their efforts. The Latin has always been greatly honored in the Romish church, as the language of the ritual, and of the larger part of her theological literature, but to the members of the Order the mastery of the language had a special value, since it enabled the natives of different countries to converse freely with each other whenever they met, and served them as a secret tongue, when they wished their conversation to be unknown. And the prominent place given it under Acquaviva, it retains even to our own day. The present General of the Order, (Peter Beck, chosen 1853,) writing to the minister of education of Austria, says, "Since the Latin tongue is the tongue of the church, the tongue of Christian tradition, and since in this tongue the scientific

treasures of all ages and of all nations are preserved, and no other has so developed itself for the expression of faith and science, the Society of Jesus has for this tongue a special love, and makes use of it for the purpose of giving instruction in its schools.".

As the chief object in this study of the Latin language is to get the mastery of it as of a living language, and to make it available for practical ends, it follows that the classics are read more for their style than for their ideas, and for this reason considerable portions of them are committed to memory in order to give the pupils command of words and phrases. The lowest class begins with the rudiments of the language, and learns, during the first year the declensions and conjugations, with some of the simplest rules of syntax; *gradus hujus scholæ est rudimentorum perfecta, syntaxis inchoata, cognitio.* Easy passages are selected for reading, attention being paid chiefly to the construction of the sentences. A beginning is also made in the practice of composition, and in committing to memory short sentences, as a foundation for speaking, for the latter purpose use being made of the so called "Amalthea," of Pomey, a curious miscellany of odds and ends. The age of members of this class was from nine to twelve.

The second class continued the study of grammar, following the method already indicated. The object aimed at being a general knowledge of its rules and principles, special attention was given to the syntax. Of the authors read, Cicero and Ovid were the chief,—some of the epistles of the former, some of the simplest poems of the latter. Sometimes also some of the Eclogues and Georgics of Virgil were studied.

The third class—the age of the pupils being from thirteen to fifteen years—completed the Latin syntax, and the grammar generally, and began the study of prosody. Among the works studied were the more difficult letters of Cicero, and some of his didactic writings; and passages of the poets, of Ovid, Virgil, Catullus, and Tibullus. The latter, however, were not read at random, but only certain selected and expurgated portions; *selectæ aliquæ et purgatæ.* Parts of the "Amalthea," were also committed to memory.

During these three years the Greek was studied with the Latin, and the same general method of instruction pursued, but it held a very subordinate place, as appears both from the very little time daily allotted to it, and from the few authors read. In Greek the compendium of Gretser was used; in Latin the same grammar which was adopted in 1581,—the *Grammatica Emmanuelis*, prepared by Emmanuel Alvarus,—continues, for the most part unaltered, in use to the present day.

Besides these two ancient languages, nothing is spoken of in the early plan of studies, *ratio studiorum*, but "religion," by which term was meant the learning by heart the little catechism of Peter Canisius, and of the Latin Gospel; and "Erudition," comprising some facts respecting sacred history, an outline of the four great monarchies and of the present kingdoms of the world. Of arithmetic, of geography, of history, as distinct departments of knowledge, nothing is said. Nor was any instruction given at first, in these institutions respecting the mother tongue of the pupils; but this omission causing great complaint, it was determined in 1703, that they should be taught it, although the teaching seems to have been fragmentary and imperfect. Nor was any attention given to the modern languages till the revision of the studies in 1832, when some concessions were made in this point to the spirit of the age.

The two higher classes, distinguished as the "poetical" and "rhetorical," *quarta poetica, quinta rhetorica*, had as their goal, eloquence, or the art of writing and speaking well. The foundation of this art was laid in the studies of the fourth class, *præparare veluti solum eloquentiæ*—which were directed to the knowledge of the structure of the language, and of the rules of rhetoric, and to the acquisition of general information. The studies of the fifth class, embracing two years, were not well defined; *gradus hujus scholiæ non facile certis quibusdam terminis definiri potest*, but had reference more or less direct to oratory, the *facultas oratoria*. The methods of study followed were essentially the same as in the lower classes. Some selected portions of an author are read in the morning, such as treat of eloquence, tropes, figures, &c., and in the afternoon, such as treat of the art of poetry. The Latin classics are used mainly with reference to style, that the pupils may learn to express themselves with fluency and propriety. The favorite author is Cicero, whose works are studied at all stages of the course, the orations being reserved to the last. Of the historians, Cæsar, Sallust, Livy, are read; of the poets, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Martial; care being taken in all cases that any thing immodest is first expurgated.

In these two classes, as in the earlier, the Greek is taught with the Latin, and continues to hold a subordinate place; but while the other classes devote but an half hour to it each day, the fifth class devotes an hour. The scholars study some of the easier prose writers, and some of the early Christian poets. The Rhetoric of Aristotle is studied, not in the original, but in the Latin. In both languages, the object is, throughout, to gain such knowledge of them as to enable the pupil to speak and write them. But in regard to the Greek, this was never, or at least very rarely, attained. The Latin,

however, being constantly used in the school as the medium of instruction, and by the pupils of the higher classes in their conversation with each other, became by degrees very familiar, and was spoken and written with great fluency, if not always correctly, or often with elegance. How many Greek authors were actually read, it is difficult to say. The list given of those to be perused in the last year, embraces Demosthenes, Plato, Thucydides, Homer, Hesiod, Pindar, and others of the ancients, together with Gregory of Nazianzen, Basil, and Chrysostom. It is apparent, however, that only very small portions of these could possibly have been read. It is to be remembered that the pupil ended the course, as a rule, at the age of fifteen or sixteen, and then proceeded to the higher course, *studiis superioribus*, during which no special attention was given to philology.

Aside from the Greek and Latin, the instruction of the pupils in other departments of knowledge was, in the higher, as in the lower classes, very fragmentary and imperfect. As a religious text-book the catechism of Canisius was used, and the Gospels in Greek, or the Acts of the Apostles, or the Panegyrics of Chrysostom, read and explained. Besides this, there was a very miscellaneous and undefined field embraced in the phrase *eruditio*, points of archæology, and history, symbols, proverbs, inscriptions, architecture, remarkable facts, and the like, but as instruction was given upon these multifarious points only upon the weekly holiday, it is apparent that much real knowledge could not have been acquired. It is not a little remarkable that arithmetic is mentioned only once, and incidentally, and that the only time given to it was in the last week of each term, when the severer studies were ended. To the physical sciences no time was devoted except in the brief interval between the examination and the division of the prizes, and that mainly to amuse the pupils with entertaining experiments. But we must add that the Society, yielding to the demands of the times, does now give much fuller instruction in history, geography, mathematics, and the mother tongue. Still, even now it must be said that the instruction in these branches is very imperfect. The study of the Latin and Greek continues to be, as it has ever been, the chief object of attention, and casts all else into the shade.

In regard to text-books, changes are permitted very slowly and cautiously, the old being retained as long as possible, and great care is taken that none of them contain any thing contrary to the Catholic faith and dogmas. Only expurgated editions of the classics are used, and such as can not be purged, as Terence, are not read at all.

The pupils are permitted to read no books in private which have not been examined and approved of by the teachers, nor to bring them into the school, or have them in their possession. The time devoted to each branch of study was very precisely marked out, and could not be departed from. The whole time given each day was five hours, two and a half in the morning, and the same in the afternoon, except in the highest class, which was four, making for the week in the former case, twenty-seven hours, in the latter from twenty-one to twenty-two; no allowance being made here for the feast and fast-days, which limited the school time still more.

The order of exercises each day is substantially as follows: At six and three quarters A. M., the bell is rung, and the pupils begin to assemble; at seven, all go together to mass, and at seven and a half the school opens with a short prayer, both pupils and teachers kneeling with uncovered heads; and closes in the same way. Before beginning to read, the teacher makes the sign of the cross; a half hour is given to collecting and correcting the written tasks, hearing recitations from memory, &c. From eight to nine the lessons of the preceding day are repeated, then a new passage is read and explained; at nine, matter is dictated for a new composition in Latin or Greek, which is always so brief that it can be written and corrected within an hour; in the lower classes two or three lines suffice. Whilst the scholars are occupied in this labor the master gives help to the more backward pupils. In the afternoon the school begins at one and a half and follows the same general order. At its close the teacher gives thanks to God. On Tuesdays and Thursdays the order is somewhat varied, and on the weekly holiday the morning school is shortened half an hour, and the afternoon session omitted.

The prescriptions which are very minute, respecting the studies not only of each day, but of each month, and for the discipline of the school and its management, we here pass by.

Characteristic Features.

From what has been said, it is not difficult to point out the characteristic features of the Jesuit schools. They may be summed up in these points: first, the limitation of the course of study to a few subjects; second, the culture of the memory by the practice of repetition; and third, the awakening of the ambition of the pupils by constant appeals to the feeling of emulation.

The one central thing in the course of study, is the knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, especially of the former. In the

original plan, *ratio studiorum*, scarce any thing else was mentioned; and although within a few years the course has been enlarged, still, these languages retain their high position. This concentration of the time and labor of the scholar upon a single point, brings with it some very decided advantages. What is learned is usually learned thoroughly, and the mind is thus made, in its measure, clear and strong, and the danger of great superficiality, of knowing a little of many things and nothing well, is guarded against. Yet on the other hand, the Jesuits, as has been remarked, attach a value to the Latin tongue, which most in our day will regard as exaggerated. To speak it and write it fluently, is an acquisition hardly worth its cost. We do not here intend to enter at all into the discussion respecting the comparative value of the study of language and of science as a means of mental discipline. We speak only of the fact that, to attain this mastery over the Latin, not only science in almost all its departments, but also modern languages and literature, must be neglected. Six years, from the age of ten to sixteen being thus spent, and in this period only the merest smattering of mathematics, or history, or geography, having been acquired, it will, we think, be rightly judged that the time could have been more profitably employed.

As to the mode in which the Latin is studied, there may be an objection taken, and we think a just one, in that the object is not to enable the pupil to enter into the genius of the language, and to imbibe its spirit as the deepest, truest expression of national life, but to obtain a verbal, external command over it as a vehicle of communication. The study, therefore, becomes a mechanical one, and serves rather to discipline the memory, than to develop the higher faculties of the mind.

A second characteristic is the cultivation of the memory by the frequent repetition of the lessons. In the lower classes, besides words and grammatical rules, passages from Cicero are selected and learned by heart, and care is taken that these shall be short, not more than four to seven lines. The catechism is also committed to memory. In the higher classes, and especially in the highest, there are frequent declamations, that what has been learned may be fittingly expressed. It is the duty of the teacher to explain the lesson, and illustrate it by examples, and the next day the pupil must repeat the illustrations in substance, or verbatim. Sometimes the remarks of the teacher are written down by the pupils and next day repeated from recollection. That the lessons may not be beyond the grasp

of an ordinary memory they are made very short, and being often repeated can not be easily forgotten.

That complete command may be attained over the Latin, not only is it used by the teachers of the higher classes in their instructions, and in all their intercourse with the scholars, but the scholars themselves are required to use it in their private intercourse with one another. The use of the mother tongue is visited with censure, and some mark of disgrace. By this continual practice the language soon becomes very familiar, at least in its colloquial forms.

The third characteristic is the intense emulation which is aroused among the pupils. The teacher is directed to appeal to this principle in every possible way. "He, who knows how skillfully to awaken emulation, has the most efficient means at his command, and in itself a sufficient means, to attain success in his office. Let him therefore value this weapon highly, and diligently inquire how he can attain with it the greatest results." Among the means to this end always employed, are the establishment of different offices with Latin titles, Prætors, Censors, Decurions, among the pupils, who are chosen according to the results of the monthly studies—skill in composition being most highly prized. Those who have written the best, receive the highest dignity, and others according to their merits. Frequently the school is divided into two parties, called now, Romans and Carthagenians, now, Greek and Trojans, under like officers, who contend with each other which shall best answer the questions put by the master; or they put questions to one another. Sometimes an officer challenges another to a trial of knowledge and skill, or a private may challenge an officer, and if he overcomes him, takes himself the office, or receives some badge of his triumph. The highest in rank, called a dictator, wears upon his breast a gilded key upon a rich ribbon, and a costly bound register, in which are inscribed the names of the dictators. These contests take place regularly at fixed times. Besides these contests various artifices are used to awaken the ambition of the scholars, as the writing down the name of one who has distinguished himself upon a public table, or the public mention of his name each month; as on the other hand, a great offense is entered in the censor's book, and the name of the offender publicly proclaimed.

But in addition to these ordinary means, great importance is given to the yearly examination and the distributions of prizes. After the feast of the Assumption of Mary, the pupils begin their preparations for examination, which occupies nearly a month. The ceremony of distributing the prizes at the end of the school year in

September, is publicly commemorated and numerously attended. The names of the victors are announced to the audience, and coming forward they receive their premiums before the assembly. Often a comedy, prepared by one of the teachers, is acted, and poems repeated. Each teacher also gives little presents, images, and books, or posts of honor, to such as have in any way distinguished themselves.

From these characteristic features of the mode of instruction in the Jesuit schools, let us consider the principles that lie at the basis of their whole educational system; and the first and fundamental one is that education must be religious. The pupils must be educated for God and the church, and every thing must be adapted to this end and subordinate to it. But religion and morality are not matters of the intellect merely; they can not be so much learned as practiced. Hence great stress is laid upon pious practices, as pilgrimages, hearing of mass, adoration of images, saying of prayers, and the like. It does not appear that very much instruction was early given to the pupils about religious dogmas. The catechism of Canisius, *summa doctrinæ christianæ*, was committed to memory, but this seems to have been as much to teach them Latin as theology. So the Gospels in Greek and Latin were read and explained. Beyond this no special dogmatic religious instruction was given. But the pupils were made daily to attend mass, and accustomed to offer certain prescribed prayers to God and the saints; sometimes from a book, sometimes from memory. They were to pray, not only at the opening and close of the school but at other times, as whenever the clock struck; and at the beginning of his written exercise, the pupil kneeling, addressed a petition to the Holy Spirit. He, who distinguished himself by the strict performance of these pious practices, was praised and rewarded, but he who neglected them was punished by being compelled to attend more masses, or repeat more prayers.

In order more effectually to accomplish the end and stimulate the scholars to outward acts of devotion, special means were resorted to. The pupils, who distinguished themselves by their piety, were received into the Congregation of the Blessed Virgin, a society which had its origin in the Collegium Romanum, but had extended itself widely in most Catholic countries. The rite of confession also played a most important part in promoting these external observances, since in this way it was easily ascertained who of the pupils neglected his religious duties. It deserves to be noted that the father-confessor of the pupils is not one of the teachers, or one having

any direct connection with the school, but a priest of the Order, specially commissioned to this duty. It need scarcely be said that the original abhorrence of the Society of Jesus against all heresy was implanted, so far as possible, in the hearts of their pupils, and it is a curious fact, and not a little suggestive, that while they were forbidden to attend public executions, there was an express exception with regard to the execution of heretics. That they almost universally became most zealous defenders of the Roman church and opponents of the Reformation, followed, of course.

As religion constituted a prominent part of education in the Jesuit schools, so also did morality. How far the accusations brought against the moral teachings of the Order by Pascal, and so often repeated since, are true, we can not here inquire. That they have had general credence is sufficiently shown by the current use of the term Jesuitical. That, however, they watched over the morals of their pupils with care, and trained them to virtuous habits, we see no good reason to doubt. But some of the principles adopted by them and applied in their schools seem justly open to exception. Among them is that of implicit obedience, an obedience which embraced not only the act, but the will; for as we have seen, every member of the Order was to be in the hands of his superior, as a corpse. He was to obey the commands given him without hesitation or reflection. Only when they manifestly involved sin could they refuse; *quæ cum peccato manifesto conjunctæ non sint.* In all other cases his obedience must be instantaneous and blind. The command was binding upon his conscience. This principle of the Order naturally ruled in the schools. The instructions of the teacher were in no case to be questioned, but received. What he said in explanation or interpretation of the lessons was not to be examined or reasoned upon, but to be remembered and repeated and believed. In this way all mental independence must soon cease, and the pupil, forbidden to exercise his own judgment, would become the mere passive recipient of the ideas of others. Men so trained might be excellent members of the Order, but could scarcely be expected to be pioneers in yet unexplored realms of thought, neither acute critics of old dogmas, nor propounders of new.

In its moral, as well as in its intellectual bearings, this principle of implicit obedience is fraught with danger. If it be true that the church of God, rightly constituted and guided by the Holy Spirit, is infallible, it by no means follows that the will of the individual members is to be held in abeyance, and that a blind, unquestioning obedience is to be paid to ecclesiastical rulers. All service rendered

to God should be reasonable, voluntary, and free, and while there is proper submission to authority, there should be at the same time no coercion of the conscience. We can not throw the responsibility of our moral acts upon others, and to do this destroys the sense of right and wrong, and disorders the whole spiritual nature. In so far, therefore, as the Jesuits taught their pupils that all disobedience, except when the command is flagrantly immoral, is mortal sin, they undermined that sense of individual responsibility which is essential to true manhood, and without which human actions have no moral character, and morality itself no real existence. To obey unquestioningly is an excellent rule for the soldier, since military evolutions rarely involve points of ethics, but not for the Christian warrior whose duty it is to have always a conscience void of offense toward God and toward men, and whose first question respecting every act must be, is it right?

But while we must protest against the principle of implicit obedience, and regard its application to education as highly injurious to the nobler forms of moral character, in the external discipline and government of the Jesuit schools we find no reason to believe that there was over much rigor and severity. Indeed, at their first institution they seem to have favorably contrasted with most of the schools of that period, in this respect. There was comparatively little of corporal punishment, or of punishment of any kind, and complaints were sometimes made that the better class of pupils were allowed too great liberty. It was a rule that the teacher should get hold of the pupil rather by mildness and kindness than by sternness, and that youth is better led by the excitements of honor and by fear of shame, than by rough punishments. When it was necessary to inflict bodily chastisement, a "corrector" was appointed for this purpose, and care was taken that he should not be a member of the Order. A chief means of preserving good conduct at all times was the supervision to which every pupil was constantly exposed. At all hours and in every place a teacher, or some officer, was present, at study and at play, by day and by night, in the play-room and the sleeping-room, and upon all walks and excursions; and more than this; it was a rule that, so far as possible, a pupil should never be left alone. Two must go in company, both to school and to church, in their walks and amusements. To this, in itself, although an excess of caution, there is little to object; but it merits severest reprobation, if, as is charged, the purpose was to make each a spy upon the other, to note and report at the confessional, or to the superiors, every offense. Such a system was destructive, not merely of private

friendship, which indeed the society never favored, teaching that Christian love embraced all alike, but of all youthful sincerity and nobleness.

To manners and deportment special attention was paid; the pupils were taught to speak distinctly and elegantly, to write a clear and handsome hand, to walk with an erect and easy carriage, and to conform to all those external forms that distinguished the gentleman. To aid them in gaining ease and assurance of manner and readiness of address, much was made of dramatic representation; both tragedies and comedies were frequently acted, but all in Latin. At first the time of each representation was limited to one and a half hours, and much expense and display were forbidden, but later much more time was given them, and the preparations were often on a magnificent scale. The people who came were admitted gratuitously, and great crowds often assembled. The plays were not unfrequently written by one of the scholastics, taking as the groundwork a legend out of the history of the martyrs, or some event of contemporaneous history. Of course these reflected the ruling feeling of the day, and were sometimes both gross and fantastic.

Besides the acting of plays, most forms of amusement were encouraged, and such gymnastic exercises as tended to promote bodily strength and grace. The pupils were taught to ride, to dance, to row, to fence, and to divert themselves with all proper games. Almost every college had a spacious farm-house where they were taken upon holidays in the summer. Especial care was taken that the site of the school should be healthy, and the rooms airy. The food was wholesome and well prepared, and beyond the watchings and fastings required by the church, there was no undue asceticism. In short, to every thing that pertained to the physical and external prosperity of their schools, the Jesuits seem to have given much care, and to have been very successful.

Before attempting to estimate the comparative merits and demerits of the Jesuit schools from the data before us, let us consider the opinions that have been expressed respecting them by various eminent scholars. Among their commenders is that very able man and competent judge, Lord Francis Bacon. In his work "De augment. Scient." he writes; "As to pædagogy, it may briefly be said, consult the schools of the Jesuits, for there is nothing better than these." Elsewhere, also, he expresses his approbation in strong terms, praising the practice of gathering the pupils in colleges, as giving a better field to dramatic representations, and awakening emulation, and

commending the short lessons, and the gradual progress from the easier to the harder branches of study.

Another distinguished philosopher, Descartes, gives the same commendation, which is the more valuable since he was himself educated at one of these schools.* One of the special advantages of which he speaks is, the mingling together and intercourse of so many youth taken from all parts of the land, supplying the place in a good degree of foreign travel; and the equality upon which all are placed.

One of the warmest encomiasts is Chateaubriand, who affirmed that in the suppression of the Society of Jesus, Europe had suffered an irreparable loss, and that education had never recovered from the blow it then sustained. He praises especially the skill with which the teachers knew how to bind the pupils to themselves, and declares that the Jesuits had brilliantly distinguished themselves in every department of knowledge, as chemists, botanists, mathematicians, mechanicians, astronomers, poets, historians, translators, archæologists, and journalists.

In the praises of the French Catholics, many Protestant writers have joined, though not without some qualification. Macaulay observes: "No religious community could produce a list of men so variously distinguished. There was no region of the globe, no walk of speculation or of active life, in which Jesuits were not to be found. They guided the counsels of kings. They deciphered Latin inscriptions. They observed the motions of Jupiter's satellites. They published whole libraries, controversy, casuistry, history, treatises on optics, alcaic odes, editions of the fathers, madrigals, catechisms, and lampoons. The liberal education of youth passed almost entirely into their hands, and was conducted by them with conspicuous ability. They appear to have discovered the precise point to which intellectual culture can be carried without risk of intellectual emancipation. Enmity itself was compelled to own that in the art of managing and forming the tender mind, they had no equals. Meanwhile they assiduously and successfully cultivated the eloquence of the pulpit. With still greater assiduity and still greater success they applied themselves to the ministry of the confessional. Throughout Catholic Europe the secrets of every gov-

* According to Lewes; "Biographical History of Philosophy," Descartes, on leaving the college of La Fleche, "declared that he had derived no other benefit from his studies than that of a conviction of his utter ignorance, and a profound contempt for the systems of philosophy in vogue." Still it is beyond doubt that he highly valued the education he had received at La Fleche.

ernment, and of almost every family of note were in their keeping." To the darker shades in Macaulay's picture we need not advert.

Ranke in his "History of the Popes," speaking of their pedagogical success, thus explains it: "The Jesuits were more systematic than the earlier teachers. They divided the pupils into classes, and the instruction of all from highest to lowest was carried on in the same spirit. They took good care of their morals, and formed well educated people. One thing they had which especially distinguished them; it was method. Every thing was designed, every thing had its end."

In the same strain Hallam remarks in his "Literature of Europe." "It was one of the first great services which the Jesuits performed, to get possession of the universities, or to found other seminaries for education. In these they discarded the barbarous school-books then in use, put the rudimentary study of the languages on a better footing, devoted themselves, for the sake of religion, to those accomplishments which religion had hitherto disdained; and by giving a taste for elegant literature, with as much solid and scientific philosophy as the knowledge of the times and the prejudices of the church would allow, both wiped away the reproach of ignorance, and drew forth the native talents of their novices and scholars. They taught gratuitously, which threw, however unreasonably, a sort of discredit upon salaried professors; it was found that boys learned more from them in six months than in two years under other masters; and, probably for both these reasons, even Protestants sometimes withdrew their children from the ordinary gymnasia and placed them in Jesuit colleges. No one will deny that, in their classical knowledge, particularly of the Latin language, and in the elegance with which they wrote it, the order of the Jesuits might stand in competition with any scholars in Europe."

Of recent German writers both Stahl and Hahn speak of the many merits of these schools. Hahn says: "It is customary to represent the instruction as exceedingly superficial and defective, and as injurious to the intellect. I believe that in this we do the Jesuits injustice, at any rate so far as concerns their earlier history, when their schools were inferior to the universities in their variety of learning, but not inferior to them in method and result. The Jesuits took great care to make study agreeable to their pupils. This has caused their opponents to bring many charges against them, as if the knowledge thus gained was necessarily both partial and superficial. It is however to be remarked that the pedagogical efforts of that day are not to be judged of by the principles which only

within a few years have found currency. That the Jesuits with their more pleasing modes of instruction reached as high results as the universities with their drier and more scholastic methods, is satisfactorily shown by the lists of their scholars whose names hold honorable places upon the pages of French literature, and in political and ecclesiastical history. They count among them the famous warriors, Conde, Bouillon, Rohan, Luxembourg, Montmorency, Villars, Broglie; the prelates, Flechier, Bossuet, Fleury, Tericin; the lawyers, Lamoignon, Argenson, Montesquieu; the philosophers and poets, Descartes, Corneille, Cubillon, Fontenelle, Moliere and Voltaire. Not all of these pupils have remained faithful to the principles of the Order that educated them, but the very enumeration shows both that the Jesuit schools had a wide sphere of action, and that they did not stupify and benumb the intellect."

To these friendly judgments of Protestant writers we may oppose the severe strictures of many Catholics, even of some educated in the Jesuit schools. The author of a recent treatise entitled, "The Gymnasia of Austria and the Jesuits," thus sums up the matter: "The method of Jesuit instruction appears upon impartial consideration, only as a melancholy proof of pedagogical error, and of rigid persistence in antiquated ways. The system as originally devised in the *ratio studiorum*, answers less and less to the necessities and demands of the times. We do not hesitate to say that if great and important provinces of the German empire have presented in our days the image of intellectual stagnation, we explain this fact by the defective character of Jesuit education. We do by no means assert that single members of this Order have not rendered important services to science. But this is not due to their method of education. We repeat, what was said in the last century, that if we compute the numbers of the Order from its institution to the year 1774, at 150,000, which is a very moderate estimate, one need not wonder that out of so many, some fifteen or twenty should be good Latin scholars. In general what the Jesuits have done for science is very small. In philosophy scarcely a single work can be named which has had any decided influence upon the progress of thought. Even in historical labors, in which they have won most praise, they have been greatly surpassed by the Benedictines of St. Maur. The deficiency in original investigation, which is so conspicuous in their schools, is manifest in all the after life of the pupils. There is often a poverty of thought in their writings which contrasts strangely with their industry in compilation. The numerous sources of information which we have examined respecting the educational labors of

the Jesuits, enable us confidently to affirm that their whole system is not only antiquated, but wrong in character, and has no internal vitality. Its continuance, whether upheld by authority or artifice, endangers both the church and the state, since it educates men who can not understand their age, and have learned nothing which enables them to meet its needs."

A much earlier writer (1625,) says: "Into no Order enters so many good minds, and none study more industriously. Nevertheless only few members of it become really learned men. It can show us no distinguished preacher, no great theologian, or humanist. That in Spain so great barbarism rules is especially to be ascribed to its educational system. If men knew to what these evils were owing, they would chase the Jesuits out of the schools."

It is apparent from this brief survey of opinions, that the educational system of the Jesuits has both its merits and defects, and that it can not be commanded or condemned in the gross. Here, as so often elsewhere, religious prejudices strongly influence our judgments. No Protestant can be expected to look with favor upon the schools of an Order whose vigorous efforts stayed the progress of the Reformation, and won back for the church of Rome large territories that the reformers had looked upon as permanently their own. Nor can it be forgotten that the Jesuits owed the success of their efforts in good measure to their zeal in educating the young. In their schools they molded the minds of the children, and reared up a generation that hated heresy with a double hatred, and honored the Pope with double honor. Looked upon as a chief means of making proselytes, and of training defenders of the Romish church, a Protestant would naturally see nothing in them to commend. On the other hand, the Catholic would find a system that produced such results, both admirable in its character and excellent in its details. Let us, as educators, try to lay aside the prejudices of both, and judge the system impartially both as to its principles, and its practical working.

There are two points of view from which we may examine the Jesuit school: first, as compared with the schools of their times; second, as tried by the established principles of education.

The schools existing when the Order of Jesus was founded, had many and palpable defects. The best of them were those of the Hieronymians,* "the scholarly fraternity," *fratres scholares*. But the range of studies was very narrow, Gerard the founder of the Fraternity, caring little for any learning that had not a directly religious character. "Spend no time" he said, "either on geometry, arithmetic,

* For an account of this Order see "Barnard's German Teachers and Educators," p. 65.

rhetoric, logic, grammar, poetry, or judicial astrology." Yet great importance was attached by him to the Latin tongue, and in the houses of the brethren was the Latin alone used. Still they were very zealous that the people should read the scriptures in their native tongue.

The repeated attempts made in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to revive the cloister-schools, had resulted in little, and they had fallen very low in public estimation; the spirit of the age was not favorable to monastic isolation. The religious impulses which the outbreak of the Reformation gave to all institutions, was not unfelt by these schools, but was not lasting. Indeed it was impossible that they could give such culture as should meet the wants of the time. Nor were these wants met by the town or city schools. Doubtless here and there were many excellent teachers, who were very useful, but the course of study was very meager, and poorly calculated to rouse into internal activity the youthful mind. Skill in verbal disputation was the end of education. The classics were studied not that they might be understood, but for the words and phrases they supplied, and therefore the orators and rhetoricians were studied, and the poets and historians neglected. Homer was little read, or Livy, or Tacitus, or Sallust. Luther referring to his early studies, says: "How often do I lament my own case, in that I read so few of the poets and historians when I was young, and that there was no one to direct me to them. But in this place I was compelled to flounder in all manner of vain philosophic and scholastic trash, true Serbonian bogs of the devil, and with much cost and care, and vast detriment besides, so that I have had enough to do ever since in undoing the harm they did me." In all schools a knowledge of the Latin was the Alpha and Omega. In this respect the system of Acquaviva had nothing peculiar. It was the scholastic feature of that day. In the famous school of the Lutheran, Sturm, at Strasbourg, where many thousand scholars were gathered of all ranks, including princes, of the nine years spent in the gymnasium, seven were given to the acquisition of Latin words, idioms, &c, and two to the acquisition of an elegant style; and the five subsequent collegiate years were spent in learning to speak and write with fluency and elegance. A certain mastery was thus gained over Latin words, but the language itself was not learned.

So far as regards the methods of study, the early Jesuit schools do not seem to have differed much from the best schools of the day. In both was the same careful cultivation of the memory by the practice of continual repetition; in both, instruction was confined to very

few branches, and thus made thorough; in both, mathematics were greatly neglected, and the students' native tongue. In one respect the Jesuit schools seem to have had the advantage; they resorted but little to corporeal punishment. Luther speaks of the schools of his day, as "being no longer hells and purgatories as they once were, where a boy learned nothing, absolutely nothing, by reason of ceaseless flogging, trembling, woe, and anguish." The Jesuit teacher made great use, as did Sturm, of the principles of emulation, and resorted only in extreme cases to bodily chastisement.

In general, comparing the schools of the Jesuits, soon after the establishment of the Order, with the schools of their day, we may say that if there was nothing distinctively new in their method of instruction, still they were ready to use all the information they could gain from any quarter, and were not bound to old ways. But the secret of their success and popularity was in the zeal and energy with which all the institutions of the new Order were inspired. In the hands of men burning with religious ardor, any system would have been, at least for the time, successful. The society had a specific work before it, and it addressed itself to the education of the young, to make them its own, to fill them with its ideas, with an earnestness and resolution without parallel in the history of teaching. Of course, in the lapse of time, this intensity of zeal passed away, and the schools were left, in good part, to stand or fall according to their intrinsic merits.

If we try these schools by those principles of education now generally recognized among us, we find both marked advantages and defects. 1. By limiting the studies to a few branches, what was learned was learned well. It was wrought into the mental being of the pupil, and made, so to speak, a part of him; and in this way the memory was greatly strengthened. 2. The scholars were not mentally overtasked; the terms of study were brief. 3. Much attention was given to physical culture, to bodily health, and to exercise and amusement. Perhaps an undue importance was attached to gentlemanly accomplishments, to a graceful carriage, and easy address. 4. The uniform working of the system, giving completeness to the training of the pupil. Nothing was left to the caprice of teachers, but he was led on, step by step, in a fixed order, till the course was mastered. Thus was there a unity in the process in itself favorable to mental discipline.

On the other hand we find some palpable defects. 1. The course of study was too narrow. It was chiefly confined to Latin and Greek. History, geography, mathematics, and the vernacular

tongue, were almost wholly omitted. How far this omission is now rectified, we can not say, but it is certain that the study of the two languages, especially of the Latin, continues to be the chief thing, to which all else is made subordinate. 2. The method of studying the Latin and Greek is defective. The great end is to get control of them as spoken languages, or at least the former, and to make it the vehicle of verbal communication. This, under certain circumstances, may be a desirable acquisition, but to most is not worth the cost. It may be done, and yet one not penetrate into the spirit of a language, or even be able to understand its authors. Many more things are necessary to make a classical scholar than mere knowledge of words. Besides, sufficient time was not given. The pupils finished, for the most part, their studies when sixteen years of age, before the judgment was sufficiently matured to appreciate the authors they had read. 3. The attention was too much directed to externals, to fluency and grace of speech, and an elegant style. Eloquence was placed in manner rather than in matter. The pupil was not taught to think profoundly, but to express himself handsomely. 4. To awaken diligence, the principle of emulation, was unduly appealed to. The pupils were converted into rivals, and made jealous and unsocial; eavesdropping and tale-bearing were its natural fruits. 5. As the object of the Order was to restore the past, and to resist all innovating tendencies in religion and theology, this feeling gave character to their educational system. It aimed to reproduce the old. In style, Cicero was the model; in theology, Thomas Aquinas. Hence the pupil was taught to imitate, to copy, to repeat. He was to receive what he was taught, not to think any thing new. Hence it is that of the distinguished members of the Order of Jesus, few have been prominent in any department of knowledge where investigation is demanded. The training of the school does not prepare them for original inquiry. 6. The final end of all school instruction was to make the pupil a faithful son of the Church. Its whole bearing is ecclesiastical. It is assumed that the church is in possession of the truth, and that it is infallible, and that it is the duty of all her children not to investigate or question, but to believe and obey. In upholding unity, individuality is destroyed. The Christian is swallowed up in the church, the man in the order, the boy in the school. Through the confessional, the superior becomes possessed of the inmost secrets of the scholar's heart. Hence there results an obliteration of what is peculiar, or distinctive in character; all appear stamped with a common stamp;

obedience has in it a tinge of servility; and the young student is changed into an unquestioning zealot.

Such in few words are the advantages and disadvantages of the Jesuit schools regarded simply from an educational point of view. As ecclesiastical missions of the church, each one will approve or condemn, according to his religious opinions. From this point of view it is not our place to consider them.

NOTE.

In the preparation of the foregoing article, use has been made of the *Ratio atyne Institutio Studiorum Societatis Jesu. Paris.* 1850. Of the articles, "*Jesuiten*," and "*Jesuitenschulen*," in Schmidt's "*Encyklopadie*," "*Jesuitenorden*," in Herzog's "*Real Encyklopadie*," and "*Jesuiten*" in the "*Kirchen Lexicon*" *of Wetzer and Welte.* Some use has been made of Ravignan "*De L Institut des Jesuits*," of Ranke's "*History of the Popes*," and of Maynard "*On the Studies and Teaching of the Jesuits.*" The writer's aim is historical not controversial.

V. NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS OF UPPER CANADA.

AT TORONTO.

I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

THE earliest presentation of the necessity of special provision for the training of teachers in a public system of elementary schools in this Province, was made by Dr. Charles Duncombe, in a "Report to the Parliament of Upper Canada, in February, 1836," as chairman of a Commission appointed in the House of Assembly in 1835. In this report, he urges, that "schools for the education of teachers should be immediately established and supported out of a fund to be permanently appropriated for this purpose." In a bill for a public act, appended to the Report, provision is made "for the support of four schools for the education and qualification of teachers—three for males, and one for females." The bill provides for an experimental garden attached, to one or more district schools in each town, for the use of the teacher, and the profit and instruction of the pupils. To strengthen the conclusions of the Report, and the provisions of the bill, the author appends in full, "the Report of a Committee of the Regents of the University of New York on the Education of Common School Teachers," drawn up by John A. Dix, in 1835, then Superintendent of Schools; also extracts from a Report of Alexander A. Everett, as Chairman of the Committee on Education in the House of Representatives in Massachusetts, on the same subject, to which was appended a communication by Dr. Julius, of Prussia, on the Teachers' Seminaries of that country. The Report with its voluminous Appendix was widely circulated, but no immediate legislative action followed on account of the political agitations of the province.

In 1840, a committee consisting of Rev. Dr. McCaul, Rev. H. J. Grasett, and S. B. Harrison, appointed by Sir George Arthur, Lieutenant Governor, to inquire into the state and improvement of education, recommended the establishment of Normal and Model Schools, as well as of School Libraries.

In 1841, a system of common schools was adopted by the Parliament of United Canada, with an annual grant of £200,000 for its support, in which permission was given for the establishment of Normal, and county and city Model Schools; and the Deputy Superintendent for Canada West in 1843, in his report to the Chief Superintendent, remarks that "Normal Schools are eagerly sought after to qualify teachers for their arduous and important duties."

In December, 1843, a separate school Act passed for Upper Canada, in

which the contingency of a Normal School was provided for. This Act was superseded by another in 1844, under which the Rev. Egerton Ryerson, D. D., was appointed Superintendent, who in 1846, submitted a "Report on a System of Public Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada,"—which is the foundation of the excellent system now in operation. In this report, Dr. Ryerson remarks: "There can not be good schools without good teachers; nor can there be, as a general rule, good teachers, any more than good mechanics, or lawyers, or physicians, unless persons are trained for the profession. It is now universally admitted that Seminaries for the training of teachers are absolutely necessary for an efficient system of public instruction—nay, as an integral part, as the vital principle of it." These positions are fortified by the opinions and arguments of Guizot, Cousin, Bache, Stowe, and Mann, and the experience of France, Prussia, Holland, and several of the United States.

After ten years of agitation, the public mind was now ripe for liberal action, and in June, 1846, the annual sum of £1,500 was granted in support of a Normal School.

II. THE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR UPPER CANADA.

The Normal School for Upper Canada, was opened in the Government House, Toronto, on the 1st of November, 1847—under an appropriation, by the Legislature of $6,000 for furnishing suitable buildings, and an annual grant of an equal amount for the support of the school. The school having proved entirely successful and outgrown its accommodation, the Legislature in 1850 and 1852 appropriated $100,000 for new and enlarged premises and suitable equipments, with an annual grant of $10,000 for its expenses.

The institution consists of a normal school and two model schools (one each for boys and girls;) the normal school is the school of instruction by lecture,—the model school the school of instruction by practice. The one hundred and fifty students in the former are teachers-in-training, whose ages vary from sixteen or eighteen to thirty, while the hundred and fifty pupils in each of the latter are children between the ages of five and sixteen years. In the normal school, the teachers-in-training are instructed in the principles of education and the best methods of communicating knowledge to the youth placed under their care—are "taught how to teach;" in the model schools they are taught to give practical effect to those instructions by teachers previously trained in the normal school, and under the direction of the head master. The model schools are designed, both by the system of instruction pursued and general arrangement, to be the *model* for all the public schools in Upper Canada.

The principal general regulations for admission of the students to the normal school are as follows:—

I. No male student shall be admitted under eighteen years of age, or a female student under the age of sixteen years. 1. Those admitted must produce a certificate of good moral character, dated within at least

three months of its presentation, and signed by the clergyman or minister of the religious persuasion with which they are connected. 2. They must be able, for entrance into the junior division, to read with ease and fluency; parse a common prose sentence according to any recognized authority; write legibly, readily, and correctly; give the definitions of geography; have a general knowledge of the relative position of the principal countries with their capitals, the oceans, seas, rivers, and islands of the world; be acquainted with the fundamental rules of arithmetic, common or vulgar fractions, and simple proportion. They must sign a declaration of their intention to devote themselves to the profession of school-teaching, and state that their object in coming to the normal school is to qualify themselves better for the important duties of that profession.

II. Upon these conditions, candidates for school-teaching will be admitted to the advantages of the institution without any charge, either for tuition, the use of the library, or for the books which they may be required to use in the school.

III. Teachers-in-training must board and lodge in the city, in such houses and under such regulations as are approved of by the council of public instruction.

IV. A sum at the rate of one dollar per week (payable at the end of the session,) will be allowed to each teacher-in-training who, at the end of the *first or second session*, shall be entitled to either a first or second class provincial certificate; but no teacher-in-training shall be entitled to receive aid for a period exceeding one session, and no resident of Toronto shall be entitled to receive aid.

V. The continuance in the school of the teachers-in-training is conditional upon their diligence, progress, and observance of the general regulations prescribed. Each session to be concluded by an examination conducted by means of written questions and answers.

Course of Instruction for Second Class Certificate in Junior Division.

ENGLISH.—Read prose with correct emphasis, intelligence, and inflection of voice.

Rules of Spelling (spelling-book superseded.)

General principles of the philosophy of Grammar.

Analyze and parse any prose sentence.

Principal Greek and Latin Roots, Prefixes and Affixes.

Prose Composition on any simple subject, with correct punctuation, &c.

WRITING.—To write a bold rapid running hand.

GEOGRAPHY.—The relative positions of all the countries of the world, with their principal cities and physical features; the Islands; Hodgins' Geography of Canada; Mathematical and Physical Geography, as taught in Sullivan's "Geography Generalized."

HISTORY.—General History of the World, from the Creation to the present time, as sketched in fifth book of lessons.

Chronological Chart.

ART OF TEACHING.—The general principles of the science of Education—General plan of School organization—Practice of teaching as exemplified in *Junior* divisions of the Model School.

MUSIC.—Hullah's System.

BOOK-KEEPING.—The Rudiments.

ARITHMETIC AND MENSURATION.—Notation, Numeration, Fundamental Rules in different scales of Notation, Greatest Common Measure, Least Common Multiple, Prime Numbers, Fractions, (Vulgar and Decimal,) Proportion (Simple and Compound,) Practice, Percentage (including Simple Interest, Insurance, Brokerage, &c.,) Square and Cube Roots, Mensuration of Surfaces, and Mental Arithmetic.

ALGEBRA.—Definitions, Addition, Substraction, Multiplication and Division. Use of Brackets, Decomposition of Trinomials, Resolution into Factors, Involution, Square of Multinomials, Expansion of $(a + b)^n$, Evolution, Greatest Common Measure, Least Common Multiple, Fractions, Interpretation of Symbols

$$\frac{.0,\ a,}{0\ 0}\ e^{\infty},\ \text{and} = \text{Simple Equations.}$$

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.—Properties of Matter, Statics, Hydrostatics, Dynamics, and Hydrodynamics, Human Philosophy.

Course of Instruction for Ordinary First Class Certificate in Senior Division.

ENGLISH.—Read Poetry and Oratorical Addresses with fluency and expression—Principles of Reading—Science of Language—General Grammar—Analysis and Parsing of Sentences in Prose and Verse—Changes of construction.

Structure of Propositions and Sentences.

Etymology—Changes effected in Roots.

Correct letter-writing, as regards Composition and mechanical arrangement.

Composition on any given subject.

History of the Origin and Literature of the English Language.

GEOGRAPHY.—Use of the Globes—(Keith)—Geography of England, Ireland, Scotland, and the United States—British Colonies (Hodgins) Rudiments of Physical Geography—(Somerville)—Structure of the Crust of the Earth.

HISTORY.—Histories of England and Canada.

Philosophy of History.

ART OF TEACHING.—The science of Education applied to the Teaching of Common Schools—Methods of teaching the different branches—Practice thereof with *Senior* division, Model School—Organization of Central Schools—Dimensions and structure of School-houses—Furniture and Apparatus.

MUSIC.—Hullah's System.

DRAWING.—Facility in making perspective outline sketches of common objects.

BOOK-KEEPING.—Single and Double Entry.

ARITHMETIC AND MENSURATION.—Review past subjects of Junior Division—Discount, Fellowship, Barter, Equation of Payments, Profit and Loss, Alligation, Compound Interest, Annuities, Position, Progression, Logarithms and Applications, Intellectual Arithmetic, Mensuration of Surfaces and Solids.

ALGEBRA.—Review past subjects of Junior Division, Indices, Surds, Quadratic Equations, Indeterminate Equations, Arithmetical, Geometrical and Harmonical Progression, Ratio, Proportion, Variation, Permutations, Combinations, Binomial Theorem, Notation, Decimals, Interest, &c., Properties of Numbers, Continued Fractions, Exponential Theorem, Logarithms, Algebraic Series, Cubic and Biquadratic Equations.

EUCLID.—Books III, IV, VI and Definitions of Book V., Exercises on Six Books (Potts.)

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.—Heat, Light, Electricity, Galvanism, Magnetism, Optics and Acoustics, Vegetable Physiology, General View of Geology.

CHEMISTRY.—Constitution of Matter, Chemical Nomenclature, Symbols, Laws of Combination, Chemical Affinity, Crystallization, Oxygen, Hydrogen, Nitrogen, Carbon, Sulphur Phosphorus, Chlorine, Calcium, Aluminum. Silicon, Potassium, Sodium, Iodine, Manganese, Magnesium, Iron, Lead, Fluorine and their principal compounds, Nature of Soils, of Organic Bodies, Germination of the Seed, Development of the Plant, Source of Carbon, Hydrogen and Nitrogen, &c., in Plants, Products of Vegetable growth, Woody Fibre, Gum Starch, Sugar, Gluten, &c., Cultivation of Plants, Composition and Formations of Soils, Mineral Constituents of Plants, Action of Manures, &c.

Additional Qualifications for honor First Class Provincial Certificate.

I. Each candidate to have held an ordinary First Class Certificate for one year.

II. To give evidence of having been a successful teacher.

III. To stand an examination in the following subjects, in addition to those necessary for an ordinary First Class Certificate, viz.:—

1. English History and Literature.
2. Canadian History and Geography.
3. Outlines of Ancient and Modern History and Geography.
4. Latin Grammar; and Books IV, V, and VI, of Cæsar's Commentaries.
5. Outlines of Geography and Astronomy.
6. Science of Teaching, School Organization, Management, &c.
7. Logic, and Mental and Moral Philosophy (Whately and Stewart.)
8. Algebra—General Theory of Equations, Imaginary Quantities.
9. Euclid—Books XI and XII.
0. Trigonometry, as far as Solution of Plane Triangles (Colenso.)
11. Inorganic Chemistry (Gregory's Hand-Book.)
12. The principles of Book-Keeping, Music, and Drawing.

III. SUPERANNUATED OR WORN OUT TEACHERS' FUND.

The Legislature in 1854, established a Fund in aid of superannuated and worn out Common School Teachers, by appropriating £4,000 a year for this purpose.

Regulations adopted by the Council of Public Instruction, April 28, 1854.

Every teacher engaged in teaching since 1854, in order to be entitled, when he shall have become superannuated, to share in this fund, must contribute towards it at the rate of *five* dollars *per annum*, commencing with 1854, and at the rate of *four* dollars per annum for the current year; and no teacher now engaged in teaching shall be entitled to share in this fund who shall not thus contribute to it annually. But the amount of the annual subscriptions for the years during which such teacher may have taught *before the first day of January*, 1854, and for which he may hereafter claim as a superannuated teacher, may be deducted from the first year's pension to which such teacher may be entitled.

2. Should any teacher, having a wife and children, subscribe to this fund, and die without deriving any benefit from it, the amount of his subscriptions, and whatever may accumulate thereon, shall be paid to his widow or children, as soon as satisfactory proofs of his decease, and the relationship of the claimant or claimants to him, shall have been adduced.

3. No teacher shall be eligible to receive a pension from this fund who shall not have been disabled from further service while teaching a Common School, or who shall not have been worn out in the work of a Common School Teacher.

4. All applications, according to the prescribed form, accompanied by the requisite certificates and proofs, must be made before the *first of April*, in order to entitle the applicants to share in the fund for such year.

5. In case the fund shall at any time not be sufficient to pay the several claimants the highest sum permitted by law, the fund shall be equitably divided among the several claimants, according to their respective periods of service.

6. The amounts of all subscriptions to this fund, and of any unexpended balances of Legislative Grants made to it, may be invested, from time to time, under the direction of this Council; and the interest accruing thereon shall be expended in aid of Superannuated Teachers of Common Schools in Upper Canada, according to these regulations. All annual subscriptions to this fund must be made before the end of the year for which they are intended; and all—

7. Communications and Subscriptions in connection with this fund, must be made to the Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada. (Subscriptions to be sent in as early in the year as possible.

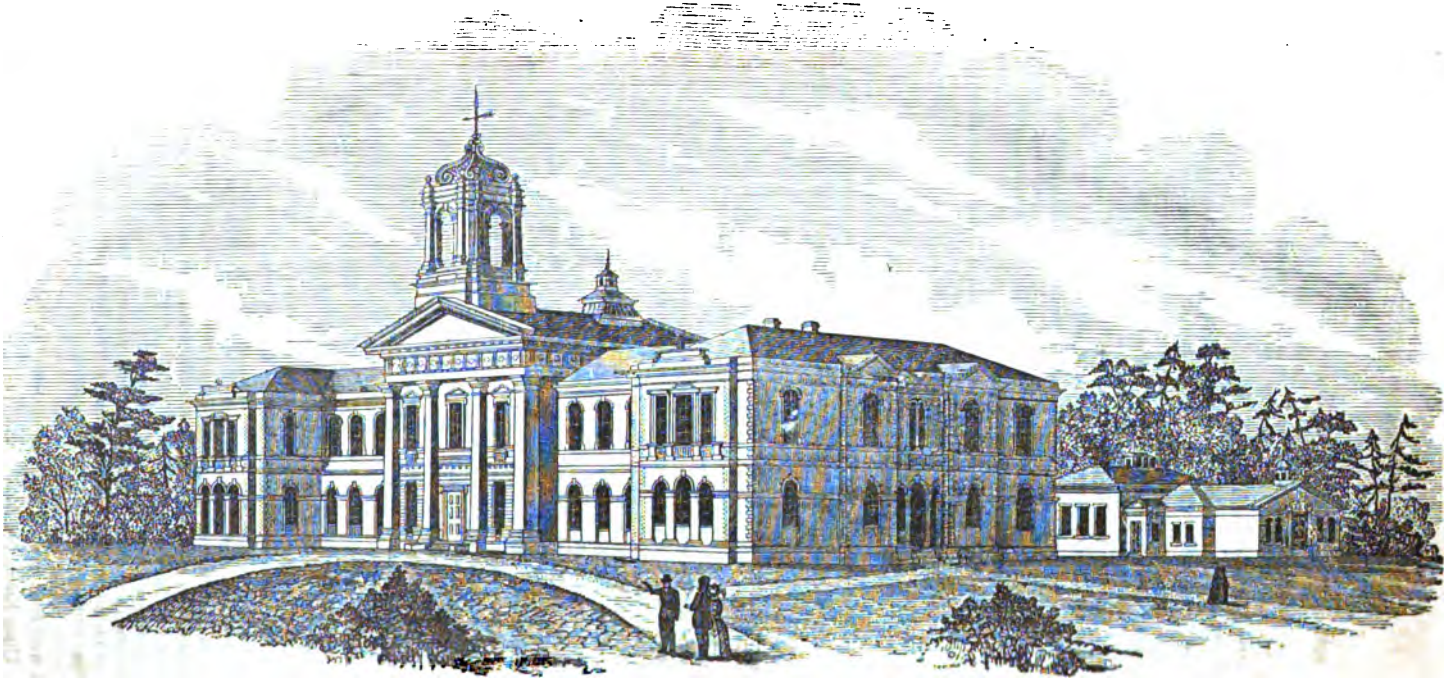


Fig. 1. Front and Side View of the Normal School and Education Offices for Upper Canada

Plan and Description of the Normal and Model School-building at Toronto, Upper Canada.

The Normal and Model Schools for Upper Canada, are situated upon the center of an open square, bounded on the north by Gerrard Street, on the east by Church Street, on the south by Goold Street, and on the west by Victoria Street, in the city of Toronto. The distance from the bay is about three quarters of a mile. The situation is very beautiful, being considerably elevated above the business parts of the city, and commanding a fine view of the bay, island, and lake. The square, which contains seven acres and a-half of ground, was purchased in August, 1850. The amount of the legislative grant for the purchase of the site and the erection of the buildings, was £15,000.

The principal normal school building, as seen in the perspective, Fig. 1, is 184 feet 4 inches frontage, by a depth on the flanks, east and west, of 85 feet 4 inches.

The front is in the Roman Doric order of Palladian character, having for its center, four pilasters of the full height of the building, with pediment, surrounded by an open doric cupola, of the extreme height of 95 feet. The principal entrance (to the officers of the educational department, &c.,) is in this front; those for the male and female students being placed on the east and west sides respectively, C and D. In the center of the building is a large central hall, (open to the roof, and lighted by a lantern) with a gallery around it, at the level of the upper floor, at B, in Fig. 3, approached on each floor by three corridors—south, east, and west—and opening on the north to the Theatre or Examination Hall.

On the east side, the accommodation on the ground floor is as follows:

School of Art and Design, No. 1,	36′	0″	by	28′	0″
School of Art and Design, No. 2,	36	5	"	28	0
Male Students' Retiring Room,	36	0	"	30	0
Council Room,	39	0	"	22	0
Male Students' Staircase A,	17	6	"	11	0

On the west side:

Waiting Room,	22′	8″	by	14′	8″
Ante-Room,	22	0	"	14	3
Chief-Superintendent's Room,	28	0	"	21	0
Depository for Books, Maps, &c.,	28	0	"	21	0
Depository for Apparatus, &c.,	22	8	"	14	8
Female Students' Retiring Room,	36	0	"	26	10
Recording Clerk's Office, with fire proof vault,	37	11	"	22	0
Second Clerk's Office,	22	0	"	14	3
Female Students' Staircase A,	17	6	"	11	0

North of the Central Hall is the Theatre, with Lecturer's entrance in the center, and side entrances east and west, *d*, *d*, for male and female students respectively. Here the aisles are marked *a*, *b*, and *c*, with seats arranged between them: the Lecturer's platform being placed between *B* and *e*. This portion of the Theatre will accommodate 470 persons, and including the galleries, 620. Around the Theatre, and beneath its gallery, are east and west corridors, by which the students reach the Model School.

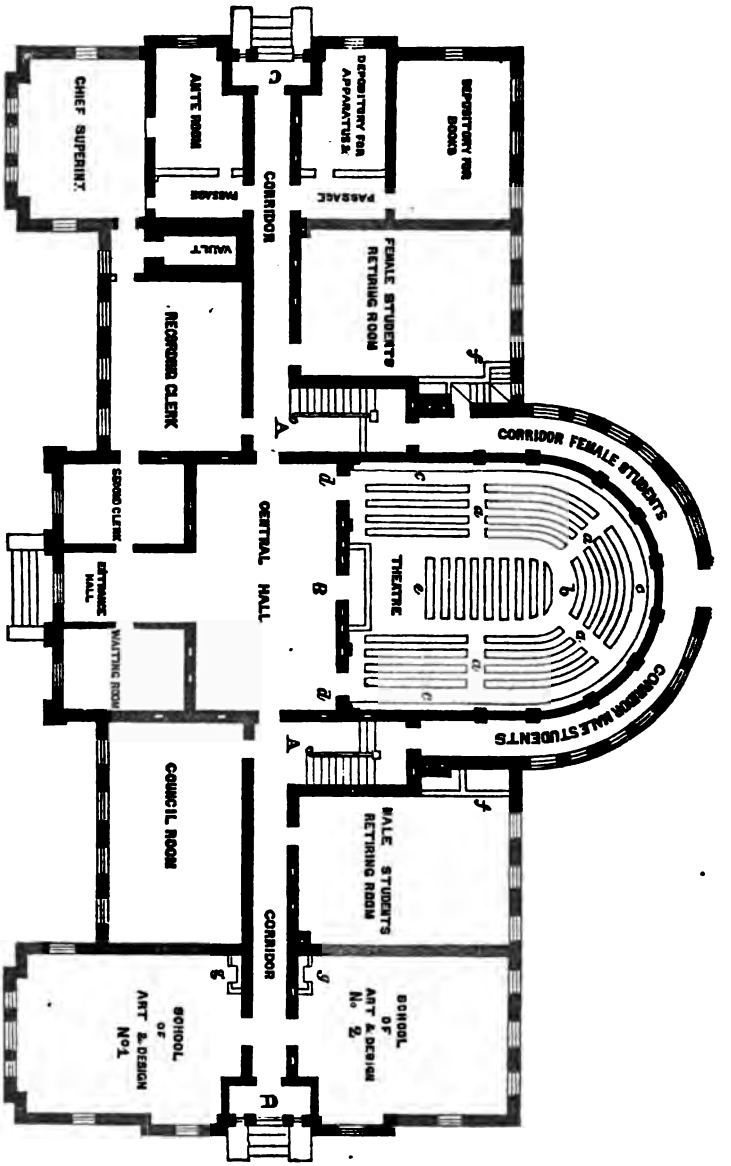
By this arrangement, except when actually in the presence of the masters, the male and female students are entirely separated.

Passing (by the corridors last named) to the Model School, which is 175 feet 6 inches frontage, by 59 feet 6 inches, the students enter the boys and girls' schools by doors to the east and west, each of which has a large school-room at its center, 56 feet 6 inches by 33 feet, capable of accommodating 300 children, with four smaller class-rooms adjoining it, about 17 feet by 15 feet 6 inches each. The boys and girls' entrances (like those for the students of the normal school already described) are at the east and west ends of the building—such entrances having each a hat and cloak room and master's (or mistress') room on either side. These schools accommodate 600 children.

Returning to the Normal School, and passing to the upper floor: on the landing of the staircases A, A, are entrances to the gallery of the Theatre, which is designed to accommodate 150 persons.

On the upper floor is the Central Hall, with its gallery B, connecting the east and west corridors, communicating with the following rooms:

Class Room, No. 1,	56′	0″	by	36′	0″


CHIEF SUPERINT.
ARTE ROOM
DEPOSITORY FOR APPARATUS
DEPOSITORY FOR BOOKS
PASSAGE
CORRIDOR
VAULT
RECORDING CLERK
FEMALE STUDENTS RETIRING ROOM
CORRIDOR FEMALE STUDENTS
CENTRAL HALL
THEATRE
CORRIDOR MALE STUDENTS
SCHOOL CLERK
ENTRANCE HALL
WAITING ROOM
COUNCIL ROOM
MALE STUDENTS RETIRING ROOM
CORRIDOR
SCHOOL OF ART & DESIGN No. 2
SCHOOL OF ART & DESIGN No. 1

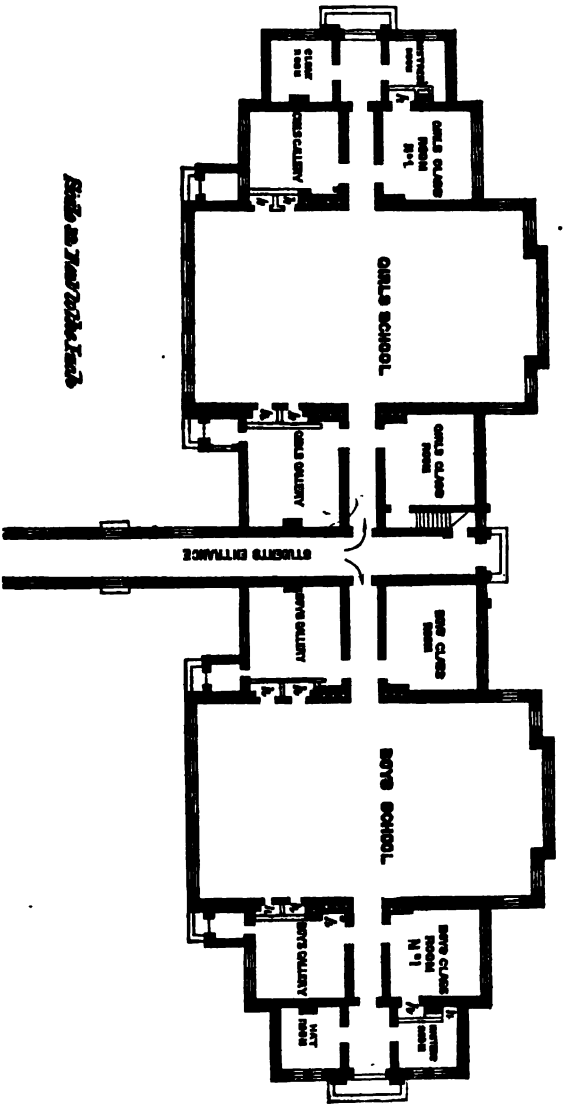


Fig. 3. Ground Plan—Normal and Model Schools and Education Offices.

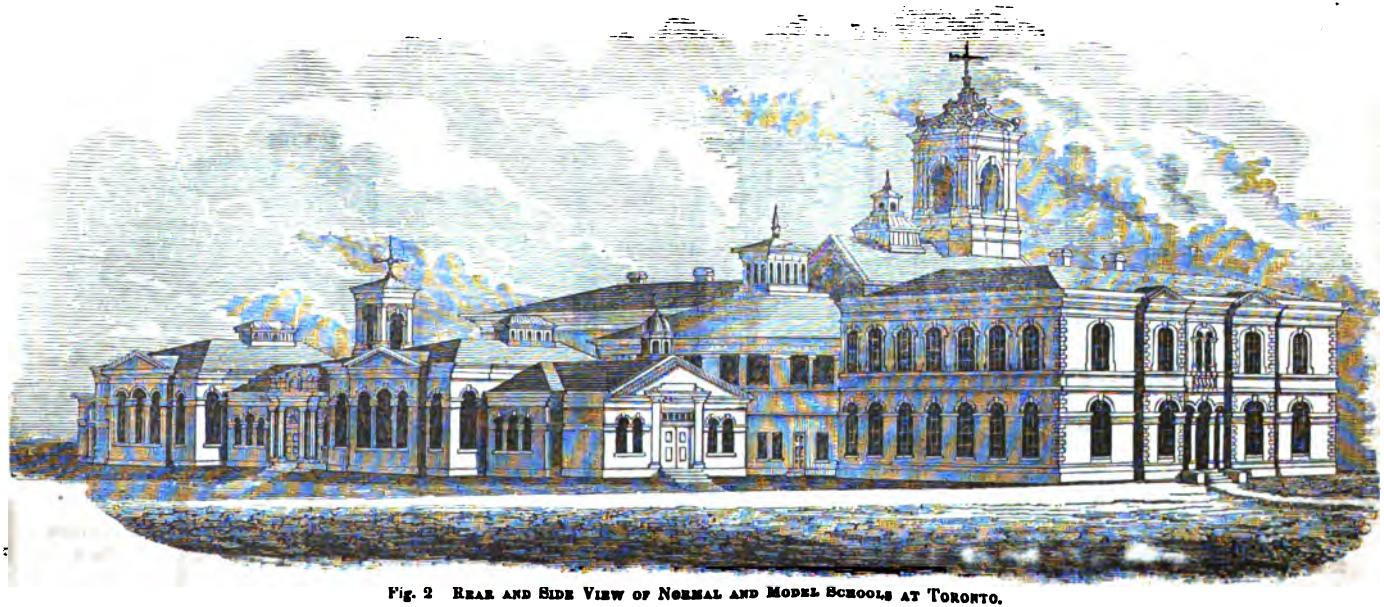


Fig. 2 Rear and Side View of Normal and Model Schools at Toronto.

Class Room, No. 2,	56	:	0	by	36	:	0
Class Room, No. 3,	45	:	2	"	28	:	0
Class Room, No. 4,	32	:	8	"	28	:	0
1st. Master's Room,	22	:	0	"	19	:	5½
2nd. Master's Room,	22	:	0	"	19	:	5½
Museum,	42	:	0	"	22	:	0
Library,	39	:	5	"	22	:	0
Laboratory,	21	:	6	"	12	:	0

In addition to the accommodation thus enumerated, there are, in the basement, rooms for the residence of the Janitor, together with furnace rooms, from whence warm air is conducted to the whole building.

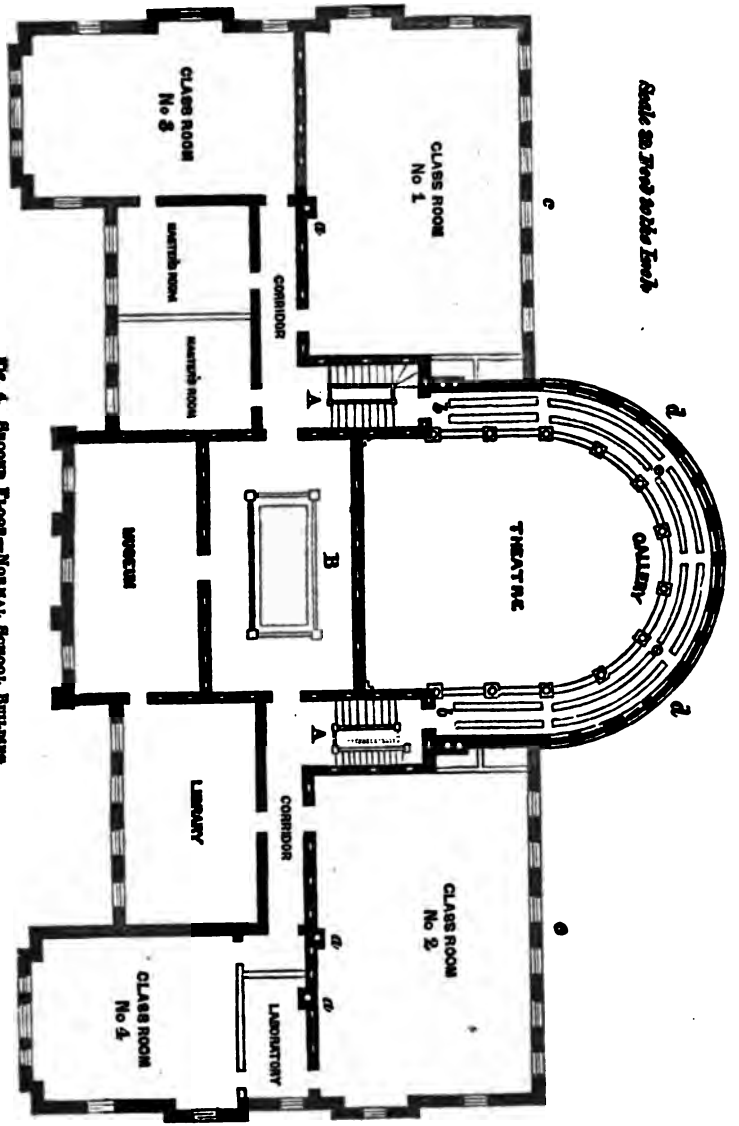


Fig. 4. Second Floor—Normal School Building

IV. EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM.

On the establishment, in 1857, of an educational museum and a model grammar-school, it was found necessary to provide further accommodation, and to remove the normal school to another part of the premises. With this view a large additional building was erected, at a cost including fittings, of about $35,000, in rear of the main structure, having a handsome front facing on Gerrard Street. To this building was transferred, in 1858, the normal school—the model grammar school being then but newly opened. The following account of the Educational Museum, is given by Dr. Ryerson.

This Educational Museum is founded after the example of what is being done by the Imperial Government as a part of the system of popular education—regarding the indirect, as scarcely secondary to the direct, means of training the minds and forming the taste and character of the people. It consists of a collection of school apparatus for Common and Grammar Schools, of Models of Agricultural and other implements, of specimens of the Natural History of the Country, Casts of Antique and Modern Statues and Busts, &c., selected from the principal Museums of Europe, including busts of some of the most celebrated characters in English and French History; also copies of some of the works of the great Masters of the Dutch, Flemish, Spanish, and especially of the Italian Schools of Painting. These objects of art are *labeled*, for the information of those who are not familiar with the originals, and a descriptive historical catalogue of them can be purchased at the Museum. In the evidence given before the Select Committee of the British House of Commons, it is justly stated that, "the object of a National Gallery is to improve the public taste, and to afford a more refined description of enjoyment to the mass of the people," and the opinion is at the same time strongly expressed, that as "people of taste going to Italy constantly bring home beautiful modern copies of beautiful originals," it is desirable, even in England, that those who have not the opportunity or means of traveling abroad, should be enabled to see, in the form of an accurate copy, some of the celebrated works of Raffaelle, and other great masters; an object no less desirable in Canada, than in England. What has been thus far done in this branch of public instruction, is in part the result of a small annual sum, which, by the liberality of the Legislature, has been placed at the disposal of the Chief Superintendent of Education, out of the Upper Canada share of the School Grants, for the purpose of improving school architecture and appliances, and to promote arts, science, and literature, by means of models, objects, and publications, collected in a museum in connection with this department.

The contents of the Museum are arranged under the heads of Sculpture, Paintings, Engravings, Works Illustrating the History of Art, &c., and Other Objects of Interest.

V. DEPOSITORY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARY BOOKS, APPARATUS AND MAPS.

By the same Law of Upper Canada, County, City, Township and Village Councils, Boards of School Trustees in cities, towns, and villages, and Trustees of rural school Sections are authorized to provide means by tax, or otherwise, for the establishment and support of public school libraries, and supplying schools with apparatus, maps, &c.; and to encourage action by the above corporations, the Superintendent is authorized to add one hundred per cent. to any sum, or sums, not less than five dollars transmitted to him for the purchase. To aid persons acting in behalf of these corporations, the Superintendent is authorized to select, and procure, at the lowest wholesale price, a stock of suitable books and articles, and publish a classified catalogue of the same, with the lowest price at which each book and article can be furnished, and to give all desired help in the selection.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

VI. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

HISTORY. TERRITORY. POPULATION.

To understand the educational history of Holland and Belgium, it will be necessary to keep in mind the leading facts in the political history of that portion of Europe. Its original inhabitants, the Belgae, the Batavi, and the Frisii, figure in the conquests of the Roman armies under Julius Cæsar, and in the spread of Christianity under Anglo-Saxon bishops. In the sixth century they were subjugated by the Franks; and in the middle of the ninth, incorporated into the empire of Charlemagne; and soon after parceled out into duchies, marquisates, counties, and lordships. In the fourteenth century, (1406,) the estates of the Count of Flanders, which had absorbed the chief authority of Brabant, and other duchies, passed to the house of Burgundy, and in 1477 were united with Austria, and a few years later, became part of the dominions of Emperor Charles V. In 1600, seven of the states, or principalities, viz., Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overyssel, Gröningen, and Friesland, formed a federal republic, with William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, as Stadtholder. In 1714, the province of Belgium was ceded to Austria, which maintained its possession till 1796, when the country was overrun by the armies of the French republic, and made part of France. In 1795, the republic of the Seven Provinces was conquered by France, and constituted into the Batavian republic; which in 1810 was incorporated into the French empire, and in 1814 came under the authority of the Prince of Orange, who in 1816 was recognized as king of the Netherlands, including Belgium and Holland. In 1830, Belgium revolted, and was recognized by the principal powers of Europe as a distinct kingdom, and Holland, or the kingdom of the Netherlands, was reduced to nearly the original limits of the seven united provinces of the sixteenth century, including Limburg, and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.

The kingdom of Holland, including the Duchy of Luxemburg, has an extent of 150 miles, from north to south; and of 125 miles from east to west, or an area of 13,643 square miles. The population in 1853, was 3,962,290, of which, (excluding Luxemburg,)

1,832,638 were Protestants; 1,164,142 were Catholics; 58,578 Israelites; and 1,369 unnamed. The Protestants are divided into Lutherans, Calvanists, and Anabaptists, (*Mennonites.*) All sects have equal privileges under the law.

Many of the peculiarities of the schools, both elementary and superior, can be traced to the political and religious views of the different provinces.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION.

Christianity was introduced into Friesland at the time of its conquest by the Franks, its first bishop being Willebrord, the Anglo-Saxon, who landed on the coast of the Netherlands, about A. D., 690. Tradition reports that a school had already been founded at Utrecht, by some zealous missionary, in the time of Charles Martel, at which his son Pepin received his education. However this may have been, the renown of the Utrecht School of St. Martin is of very ancient date, and what York has been in England, Fulda in Germany, Tours in France, and Liege in Belgium, such a relation may this city be said to have held to Northern Netherlands. Here the influence of Winifred, (St. Boniface,) the Apostle of Germany, had been most strongly felt, and under bishop Gregory, one of his pupils, great numbers of youth from the neighboring countries were here gathered together for instruction, "some of them even from among the Baguarii, and Suevi." Ludger, first bishop of Münster, a friend of Alcuin, and pupil of Gregory, was deservedly styled by the Benedictines, "the light of Friesland, and of all the lands about." During the invasion by the Normans, this school at Utrecht was suppressed, but was reëstablished in 917, and regained its former renown. The emperor, Henry the Fowler, placed here his three sons, Otto, Henry, and Bruno, to be educated, of whom the last became afterward archbishop of Cologne and archduke of Lottringen, and was noted for his extraordinary learning and friendship for the poet Prudentius. At the beginning of the twelfth century, Utrecht possessed no less than five flourishing schools, several of which had each a "rector" in addition to the priests who had the general control. At about the same time, several convents became distinguished as educational institutions, especially those at Egmond, Nymwegen, Middleburg, in Zealand, and Aduwert, near Gröningen.

In Holland, as in Belgium, in addition to the schools that were attached to the cathedrals, convents, and chapters, there were established in the course of the twelfth century, by the more wealthy communities, public schools especially designed for the instruction of the citizens and laity. It is also worthy of notice that the an-

thority to open such schools was always derived from the counts—by whom it was conferred, sometimes upon the cities as an especial privilege, and sometimes upon merely private persons as a mark of particular favor. The jurisdiction of the feudal lords was the same here as in Belgium; but while in the latter country, with the exception perhaps of the elementary schools in some of the cities, the right of supervision everywhere devolved upon the chapters, instruction in these public schools of Holland was wholly withdrawn from the clergy, and they were made essentially secular in their character. The privilege of thus establishing schools was conferred upon some of the cities at the following dates; Dort, by Count Floris V., A. D., 1290; the Hague, 1322—Leyden, 1324—and Rotterdam, in 1328, by William III.; Delft and Amsterdam, in 1334, by William IV.; Leyden again, 1357—Haarlem, 1389—Alkmar, 1398—Hoorn, 1358 and 1390—the Hague, 1393—Schiedam and Ondewater, 1394—and Rotterdam, in 1402, by Albert of Bavaria.

These schools, adds Stallaert, on the authority of Buddingh, were generally styled "School en Schryfambacht," "Schoole en Kostern," (school and writing offices, schools and clerks' houses,) and the "Schoolmijsters" (schoolmasters) were looked upon as professional men or craftsmen—as was the case also in Belgium, where they formed distinct guilds and fraternities. These public schools of Holland were divided into "large" and "small" schools, (groote en bijschoolen,) Latin being taught in the first division. The institution at Zwolle, attained special notoriety in the fourteenth century, under the direction of the celebrated Johan Cele. According to Thomas à Kempis and Ten Bussche, its pupils numbered about a thousand, gathered from Holland, Belgium, and the principal provinces of Germany.

The advancement of learning in the Netherlands was largely promoted by "The Brethren of the Common Life," whose first school was established by Gerhard de Groote, (Gerhard the Great,) of Deventer. The spirit of mysticism that was at first prevalent among them, gradually gave place to a zeal for literary pursuits; and the Hieronymians especially, like the Italians at the time of the revival of letters, became devotees to the classics. It may however be affirmed that Erasmus never had occasion to charge them with "paganism," as he did the scholars of southern Europe. Though they contended against the divinity of the schools, it was because, (as Karl von Raumer says,) it seemed to them to be of no value, and even detrimental to profound sanctity and the soul's

happiness. Still, the writings of Cicero and of Virgil, had a charm even for them, and notwithstanding their asceticism—such as we see mirrored in à Kempis' "*de Imitatione Christi*"—they labored effectively to advance popular education. It is not to be forgotten that one of the brethren, Gerhard of Zutphen, was unceasingly active in extending the circulation and use of the Scriptures in the Dutch language—a fact of no little significance, if we consider that they were then on the eve of the reformation.

In order to appreciate the revolution that was wrought in the minds of the people when the principles of the Reformation gained a fast foothold in the northern provinces of the Netherlands, it would be necessary to give a history of the university of Leyden, (founded in 1575,) the bulwark of Protestant doctrine in Holland. But as we must hasten to the consideration of more recent times, we can only refer the reader to a highly instructive work published at Leyden, in 1830,—"*Geschiedenis der Leidsche Hoogeschool van hare oprigting in den Jaar* 1575, *tot het Jaar* 1825," (History of the Leyden High School, from its foundation in 1575 to 1825.) It is sufficient to remark that the freedom of thought that was first shown in theological controversy, gradually awakened a new zeal for the studies auxiliary thereto, and in the end contributed greatly to the emancipation of all departments of learning. After the founding of the university at Leyden, others were established successively at Franeker, in 1585, at Gröningen, in 1614, at Utrecht, in 1638, and at Harderwick, in 1648. During all this period, and until the Spanish war of succession, Holland was the refuge from every side, for those who were subjected to persecution for religion's sake, among and accompanying whom were philosophers and scholars of the first rank.

But the natives of Holland were not content to remain inferior to their illustrious guests, and the century that then produced a Descartes and Huyghens, can certainly claim an honorable place in the records of man's intellectual development. This was also the most brilliant period in the history of the universities. Leyden is proud of such men as Dousa, Vossius, Heinsius, Raphelengius, Meursius, Grœnovius, Perigonius, and Schultens; of 'S Gravesande, the philosopher; of the theologians, Gomar and Arminius; and of the great physician whose letters could be addressed, "to Boërhaave, Europe." Utrecht, the birthplace of the learned Pope Hadrian IV., can boast of a Gisbert Voet, a Grävius, a Reland, and others. Rotterdam, where Erasmus was born, was the residence of Peter Bayle. Spinoza was from Amsterdam. The Hague possessed a Huyghens,

Basnage, and Saurin, the Bossuet of the Calvinists. It will be noticed, moreover, in running over this list, that philological studies are richly represented; and the culture of these has been continued in Holland, from that time until our own, in proof of which, we need only point to Wyttenbach, Peerlkamp, von Heusde, Cobet, and many beside. But the ardor of theological controversy gradually cooled; philosophy needed no longer a place of refuge; and it must be confessed that literary zeal subsided generally throughout the Batavian Republic. The reputation of this little kingdom in our own times is indeed less extensive, but it is not on that account the less worthy of our attention, if we regard its system of public instruction, inasmuch as its endeavors have been directed above all things else, to the elevation of the intellectual condition of the laboring classes of the people.

The Elementary Public Schools of Holland, have been officially visited by eminent scholars, and educators from different countries, by Cuvier, in 1811, Cousin, in 1836, from France; by Bache, from the United States, in 1837; by Nichols, in 1838, and Arnold, in 1856, from England; and by Prof. LeRoy, of Belgium, in 1860; who all unite in their reports, in the warmest commendation of the practical working of the system on which the schools are organized and administered, and of the condition of popular education throughout the kingdom. From that report, and from official documents, we shall present a more comprehensive and documentary account of the system than has yet appeared in the English language.

Cuvier, in his report, of 1811, had given a rather sad picture of the universities and Latin schools of Holland. The French government, (which had been established over the country under Napoleon I,) heeded his suggestions, and introduced some important reforms. In 1814, Prince William, afterward king of the Netherlands, made it one of his first cares to confirm and perfect these changes. The royal ordinances of 2d August, 1815, and again of 9th Sept., 1826, in relation to instruction in the mathematics, which had hitherto been neglected, are evidence of his endeavors. Since that time their improvement has been uninterrupted; but still it can not be claimed that instruction in the higher branches, other than the classics, has reached the degree of excellence long ago attained in neighboring countries. It is otherwise with elementary instruction. By the law of 13th August, 1806, the system was reorganized throughout, and recently it has again been remodeled, by the law of 13th April, 1857, which gave rise in the chambers to debates of the highest interest.

The system of public instruction in Holland, embraces:

I. Primary, or Elementary Schools.

II. Secondary, or Intermediate Schools.

III. Superior Schools, or Universities, or Athenæums.

IV. Special, or Professional Schools.

V. Supplementary Institutions and Agencies for supplying deficient institutions, or advancing Education, Science, and the Arts.

VII. PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOL*

AT HAARLEM, IN HOLLAND.

This school is peculiar in regard to instruction, practice in teaching, and discipline. It is intended to prepare for at least the second grade among primary teachers, which, it will be remembered, qualifies for the mastership of any primary school, the first class being an honorary grade. The age of admission, the time of continuance, and the courses of instruction, are regulated accordingly.

The director† is the head of the institution, and controls absolutely all its arrangements. His principle, that a teacher in such a place should be left to study the character and dispositions of his pupils, and to adapt his instruction and discipline to them, dispenses with rules and regulations, or constitutes the director the rule.‡ To carry out this principle, requires that the school should not be numerous, and it is accordingly limited to forty pupils. There is an assistant to the director, who shares in the general instruction with him, and upon whom the religious teaching of the pupils specially devolves. The school is visited periodically by the inspector-general, who examines the pupils personally, and notes their general and individual proficiency.

To be admitted, a youth must be over fifteen years of age, and have passed an examination upon the studies of the elementary school, satisfactory to a district-inspector, who recommends him for admission. He is received on probation, and, at the end of three months, if his conduct and proficiency are satisfactory to the director, is recommended to the minister of public instruction, who confirms his appointment.

The course of theory and practice lasts four years in general, though, if a pupil have the third lower grade of public instruction in view, which is attainable at eighteen years of age, he is not required to remain connected with the institution beyond that age, and indeed may leave it, on his own responsibility, before the close of the regular course. The second grade is only attainable at the age of twenty-two, and hence it is not usual for pupils to enter this school as early as the law permits. The theoretical instruction is composed of a review and extension of the elementary branches, as the Dutch language, geography, arithmetic, elementary geometry, the history of the country, natural history, religion, writing, and vocal music, and also of general geography and history, natural philosophy, and the science and art of teaching. This is communicated in the evenings, the pupils meeting at the school for the purpose. During the day they are occupied in receiving practical instruction, by teaching under the inspection of the director in the elementary school already spoken of, attached to the normal school, and occupying its rooms, or in teaching in some other of the elementary schools of the town of Haarlem. They pass through different establishments in turn, so as to see a variety in the character of instruction. The director, as inspector of primary schools in this district, visits frequently those where his pupils are employed, and observes their teaching, and also receives a report from

* From Bache's Education in Europe.

† Mr. Prinsen, one of a class of teachers who adorn this profession in Holland.

‡ When M. Cousin, in his visit to Haarlem, invited Mr. Prinsen to communicate to him the regulations of his school, and then to show him how they were carried out, first the rule, then the results, the director replied, "I am the rule."

the masters. The observations and reports are turned to account in subsequent meetings with his class.

The pupils do not board together in the normal school, but are distributed through the town, in certain families selected by the director. They form a part of these families during their residence with them, being responsible to the head for the time of their absence from the house, their hours, and conduct. They take their meals with the families, and are furnished with a study and sleeping-room, fire, lights, &c. The director pays the moderate sum required for this accommodation from the annual stipend allowed by government.* The efficiency of such a system depends, of course, upon the habits of family life of the country, and upon the locality where the school is established. In Holland and Haarlem the plan succeeds well, and has the advantage that the pupils are constantly, in a degree, their own masters, and must control themselves, and that they are never placed in an artificial state of society or kind of life, which is the case when they are collected in one establishment. The director makes frequent visits to these families, and is informed of the home character of his pupils. The discipline of a normal school is, of course, one of the easiest tasks connected with it, for improprieties or levities of conduct are inconsistent with the future calling of the youth. Admonition by the assistant and by the director are the only coercive means resorted to, previous to dismission. The director has authority to dismiss a student without consulting the minister, merely reporting the fact and case to him. Though this power may be important in increasing his influence, yet it has been necessary to exercise it but three times in twenty years. There are two vacations of from four to six weeks each, during which the pupils, in general, return to their friends. The school has a lending-library of books relating to teaching, and of miscellaneous works. This useful institution supplies for the primary schools, every year, from eight to twelve well-prepared masters, who propagate throughout the country the excellent methods and principles of teaching here inculcated.

* This annual stipend is ninety dollars. Supposing that a student has an entire bursary, he will require some additional funds to support him while at the school: for his board, lodging, &c., cost two dollars per week, which, for the forty-two weeks of term-time, amounts to eighty-four dollars, leaving him but six dollars for incidental expenses.

VIII. MILITARY SYSTEM AND EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

I. MILITARY SYSTEM.

The Emperor is commander-in-chief of all the forces, by sea and land, assisted by the Staff-Office, the members of which are expert linguists, as well as scientific experienced and military officers. The army is under a Minister of War, assisted by a colleague and a military council. The office of Master of Ordnance is generally filled by a grand prince. The regular force, or army of occupation consists of about 783,000 men, which can be easily swelled to at least 1,200,000, as the whole male population are liable to serve when summoned. The army is mainly recruited by conscription, which falls on the serfs and laboring population, as the nobility, officials, clergy and merchants are exempted. The term of service is twenty years for the guards, twenty two for the line, and twenty-five for the train and military servants. But few pensions are granted to discharged or furloughed soldiers, although veteran soldiers are frequently appointed to situations as doorkeepers, watchmen, overseers, &c., in government establishments and public institutions.

Promotion by seniority, imperial favor, and good conduct on the field. Every officer must be educated and trained to his business, and serve from the lowest to the highest rank. Non-commissioned officers, musicians, assistant veterinary surgeons, head workmen in the military workshops and factories must all be trained for their special duties. A large portion of these classes are the sons of soldiers, who have been surrendered by their parents to the government, who receive them at the age of six or twelve, by special arrangement. They are termed *cantonists*. Among the special military schools of a technological character are, eleven for garrison artillery; three for armories; three for powder mills; three for arsenals; one for riding masters; one for fencing; one for accountants; one for topographical drawing, &c.

II. MILITARY SCHOOL FOR OFFICERS.

The officers of the Russian army obtain their first commission after passing through the Military Schools or Cadet Corps, or if qualified in scientific and other instruction, ascertained by open examination, by serving as privates six months, and as sergeants or ensign two years. Applicants for the Staff Corps, must have served as officers two years, must be recommended by their superior, and have been two years in the Staff School—and there pass an honorable examination in military history and strategy. The following statistics are taken from the *Kalender* of the St. Petersburg Academy, for 1859.

I. Under a Commission or Board of Military Instruction, which reports directly to the Emperor, there are

3	Military Schools of Special Application, viz.:					
	1 The Nicholas Academy of the Staff, with	22	teachers	and	250	scholars.
	1 The Nicholas Upper Engineer School,	" 50	"		126	"
	1 The Michael Artillery School,	" 32	"		117	"
1	Page Corps, or College,	" 41	"		159	"
1	Ensign's School of the Guards,	" 31	"		206	"
22	Cadet Corps or Military Colleges,	" 723	"		7440	"
27		899	"		8,298	"

The Cadet Corps, or Military Schools, receive their pupils young, and impart a general as well as a scientific education, preparatory to entering the Special Schools of Application either for Engineer, or Artillery, and later in years and experience, the Staff School. These Special Military Schools are not surpassed by any of the same class in Europe.

II. Under the Ministry of War there are the following Scientific Establishments and Schools.

22	Military Schools, with	326	teachers	and 10,000	scholars.
3	Lower or Element. Artillery Schools,	22	"	166	"
1	Topographers' School, with	13	"	140	"
1	Medico-Chirurgical Academy, with	35	"	978	"
	Military Hospitals,			1,020	"
3	Veterinary Schools,			12,304	"

The Military Schools are of an elementary and technological character, and are intended to supersede a class of schools known as the *Cantonist* Schools.

The experience of the Crimean War demonstrated to the world, the wise forecast of the Russian government in providing for the thorough scientific and practical training of the officers of her great armies as was confessed by the "*London Times*," in the bitter disappointments of the English people with their own officers.

THE IMPERIAL STAFF SCHOOL AT ST. PETERSBURG.

[Extracts from Governmental Regulations.]

I. GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

A MILITARY Academy, the highest institution of its class, is founded in St. Petersburg, to educate Officers for the service of the General Staff, and to promote the diffusion of Military Science in general. Its special functions are—

1. To prepare Officers for the special service of the General Staff.

2. To furnish to a certain number of Officers from the Artillery and Chief Engineer School a course of Grand Tactics and Strategy, on the same principles and to the same extent as it is furnished to the Officers preparing for the Service of the General Staff.

3. To apply all the means indicated in these Regulations to the diffusion of Military Science.

From forty to fifty Officers shall be educated in the Academy for the special service of the General Staff, and about ten from the Artillery and from the Chief Engineer School.

The Military Academy is under the immediate control of the Chief of the Staff of His Imperial Majesty, and is under the direction of a President appointed by the Emperor.

A Council, presided over by the President, considers and determines all important questions relating to Studies and Economic Administration.

A Vice-President, appointed by the Emperor, is associated with the President to assist him in the performance of his official duties.

The Officers receiving an education for the General Staff are placed under the control of four Staff Officers appointed by the Emperor.

The subjects of Study and the Scientific Course are divided into two Sections, the Theoretical and the Practical.

The number of Professors, Adjuncts, and Teachers is determined according to circumstances by the Academic Council, with the approbation of the Chief of the Staff of his Imperial Majesty.

The Salaries of the Officials for the internal service of the Academy are fixed in the List annexed to these Statutes.

It is the most sacred duty of the whole Staff of the Academy, and in particular of the Chiefs and Professors, never to lose sight of its object; and while they devote themselves to extend the knowledge of the student Officers, to impress upon them, by teaching and example, the precepts of the purest morality, the true and exact performance of their professional duties, an unconditional obedience to their superiors, and an inviolable devotion to the throne and their country.

The Academy has a peculiar Seal.

II. ADMISSION TO STUDENTS.

Only Superior Officers can enter into the Academy, and these up to the rank of Staff Captain if they serve in the Guards, Artillery, or Engineers; up to the rank of Captain, if they belong to an Army Regiment.

The Directors of the Noble Guard School, of the Page Corps, of the First, Second, Pant, Moscow, and Finland Cadet Corps, have the right to propose in the proper quarter, for admission into the Academy, the most distinguished Officers who have left these military institutions.

The Officers proposed for admission into the Academy must be at least eighteen years old, and be distinguished for capacity, industry, diligence, morals, and good conduct.

Officers from the Regiments and Artillery Brigades must present testimonials of blameless morals, conduct, and zeal for the Service from the Chief of their Division. Officers from the Engineer Battalions must present similar testimonials from the Chiefs of their Brigades.

Those who give testimonials are strictly responsible for their truth, as are the Chiefs of the Military Schools for the capacity and qualifications of the Officers they propose.

Admission into the Academy depends upon a strict examination in the following subjects:—

a. Languages:

Russian, German, or French.

b. Mathematics:

Arithmetic, Algebra to Equations of the Second Degree, Plane and Solid Geometry, and Plane Trigonometry.

c. Military Sciences:

The Principles of Intrenchment, Fortification, and Artillery.

d. Evolution:

Evolutions of a Battalion of Tirailleurs, of a Squadron, of a Whole Line, of a Scattered Front (*Zerstreuten Front*), and, lastly, the Service of Outposts.

e. History:

General History of the World to the sixteenth century in its chief epochs, particularly in reference to Russia; special Histories of the European States in modern times.

f. Geography:

Universal Geography, and particularly that of the Russian Empire and the neighboring States.

Besides this, a clear conception of Situation, Plans, and Topographical Charts is required.

III. METHOD OF INSTRUCTION.

The Scientific Course is divided into two Sections,—The Theoretical and the Practical. The Theoretical part of the higher Military Sciences is expounded by the Professors, their Adjuncts, and the Teachers. Those Officers who belong to the Practical Section exercise themselves under the guidance of the Professors.

a. In Written Exercises on any proposed Military Subject.
b. In the composition of Military Descriptions (*Beschreibungen*,) of every kind.
c. In the Art of taking Military Surveys of a Country, and of judging the Tactical Nature of a Ground.

In each Section there are from twenty to twenty-five Officers destined for the Service of the General Staff, and from four to five from the Artillery and Chief Engineer School.

These Officers, according to their capacities and attainments in the Military Sciences, enter either into the Theoretical Section or into both the Theoretical and the Practical Section at the same time, and remain in each a year.

The complete Academic Course in both Sections extends over two years.

The following subjects are taught:—

a. Russian literature, with particular reference to the composition of Military Essays in a faultless style, and to the style of the Military Chancery (writing department of the War Office.)
b. General ideas on Artillery, and more precise details on the same subject as a Special Arm; its use in the open field and in sieges.
c. Petty Tactics in the employment of a single Division, with which all Officers must be thoroughly familiar, as this is indispensable to all. To this is joined the theory of the formation of columns, of their use, of the effect of the fire of Infantry, and lastly, the explanation of all evolutions with the three arms which are usually employed for movement, deployment, or forming in order of battle.
d. The Elements of Topography and Geodesy, of Military Drawing, and the art of measuring situations by the eye.
e. Military coup d'œil (*Scharfblick*,) and the art of judging the tactical nature of ground.
f. Castrametation, or the art of encamping, and the theory of positions.
g. Logistic, or all that relates to the details of marches, either in presence of the enemy, or in the movement of troops from one place to another.
h. Intrenchment and fortification, as far as regards the attack and defense of intrenched camps and fortified places, and the effect of intrenchments and fortifications on the operations of an active army.

l. Grand Tactics, embracing the various systems of the Order of Battle; and the formation and employment of the Three Arms, and treating of unexpected engagements or the sudden collision of two hostile Divisions.
k. The Military Geography of Europe, particularly that of the Russian Empire and the neighboring States.
l. Military Statistics, or knowledge of the land and sea Forces and warlike means of all the European States.
m. Strategy in all its extent; with a criticism on the last wars, and an indication of the events which demonstrate the influence of this science on the success of a campaign.
n. A general view of military history in its most remarkable periods, from the earliest times to Peter the Great, and a more complete view of the Military History of modern times.
o. The literary History of the Military Sciences, with a criticism on the best ancient and modern writers on the History of War; and a special reference of those who may contribute to the further education of the Officers after their departure from the Academy.
p. Duties of the General Staff Officer in times both of peace and war.
q. The art of riding.

The officers of the Practical Division are employed on the same Sciences; not, however, during the hours of lecture, but by practicing under the direction of the Professors, and according to the regulations of the Academic authorities.

The subjects they are employed upon are principally the following:—

a. Topographical and Tactical description of ground after inspection.
b. Military Geography and Statistics.
c. Logistic.
d. Grand Tactics.
e. Strategy.
f. Military History.
g. Literature of the Military Sciences.
h. Designing plans of battles and manœuvres, as exercises in Topography, Logistic, and Tactics.
i. Historic reports, and keeping the usual journal of the General Staff.
j. All that belong to the survey of a country, and the practical working of the Artillery and Siege operations.

Teachers are appointed for those officers who require to be perfected in the French or German language.

All the sciences are taught in the Academy in the Russian language; and an exposition in French or German is only allowed when dictated by circumstances, and then a special permission must be first obtained from the Chief of the Staff of his Imperial Majesty.

The Officers of the Practical Section are also required to use their native tongue in their written exercises, except in one or two composed in a foreign language by the direction of the authorities.

In summer, the Officers of the Theoretical Section repair to regiments to which they are directed to learn the camp service. The Officers of the Practical Section make surveys and reconnaissances,

mark out camps and proportionate intrenchments on a given ground. At the time of grand manœuvres, they are associated with Officers of the General Staff, and have the opportunity of witnessing the practical exercises of the Artillery and Sappers, in order to be able to make a report as eye-witnesses on the effect of Artillery and Siege operations.

IV. LOCAL REGULATIONS.

All Officers receiving an education in the Academy are entered on the rolls of their Regiments, Artillery Brigades, and Sapper Battalions, as supernumeraries and detached Officers, without, however, losing their standing or right of promotion by seniority, their pay, servants' rations, or any other advantages enjoyed by Officers present with their troop.

Those Officers who enter the Academy from the Regiments of the Garrison of St. Petersburg continue, while they belong to it, to perform the front service of their Regiments; those who come from the Artillery and Sapper Brigades, or from Regiments not stationed in St. Petersburg, are attached for the front service to one of the Regiments of the Garrison of St. Petersburg; the necessary arrangements are made by the authorities of the Guard Corps.

The Officers of the Artillery and Chief Engineer School, having only to attend the Course of Grand Tactics and Strategy, retain their posts while studying in the Academy.

Four Staff Officers, appointed by the Emperor, have the immediate control of the Officers preparing themselves for the service of the General Staff; they are to exercise a vigilant supervision over them, and to report on their conduct to the Vice-President; they are the organ by which all orders reach the Officers, and they form a Court of the First Instance in matters relating to the Service.

One day in the week is devoted to drill, and every day two officers mount guard with the first division of the garrison of St. Petersburg.

The Officers are to devote exclusively to study the leisure hours at their command after the performance of front and garrison duties; and are to observe, in all respects, the Statutes of the Academy.

To facilitate, economically, the residence of the Officers in St. Petersburg, they receive, with the exception of those belonging to the Guard, besides their usual pay and an allowance for quarters according to their rank, an annual allowance of 500 roubles, which is paid in the Academy.

Officers ordered to survey a country, or to make a reconnaissance,

receive their traveling expenses from the Commissariat, according to the distance to which they are sent, and in proportion to their rank: their board expenses are not allowed.

V. REGULATIONS RESPECTING PROMOTION.

The course is terminated, and Students finish their career, in October annually.

At the same time, Officers are removed from the Theoretical section to the Practical, making place for candidates who wish to enter the former.

At their departure from the Academy the Officers receive from the Academic Council testimonials of conduct and scientific attainments, with a memorial of the rewards which they receive at leaving.

On leaving the Academy the Officers have to act as follows: those who belonged to the Artillery, or Chief Engineer School, repair to their highest Commanding Officer; the rest, who were educated for the service of the General Staff, return to their Regiments, Artillery Brigades, or Sapper Battalions, on whose rolls they remain as supernumeraries and Officers reckoned as of the General Staff, until they are formally transferred to the latter.

The rewards to which Officers can acquire a claim at leaving the Academy are the following:—The most distinguished is promoted to the lowest rank (on the Staff,) and receives a golden medal; he is only entitled to this if all the teachers give him the full number balls, and unanimously recognize him as most conspicuous for attainments. Besides this, he must have written a satisfactory essay on a given theme, relating to some important war, and have been blameless in moral conduct during his residence in the Academy. The student who is recognized as second, both in attainments and behavior, and has also obtained the full number of balls, is rewarded with the great silver medal, and receives double pay for a year. The student who obtains the third place in attainments and behavior, and the full number of balls, receives the little silver medal, and double pay for a year. Each medal bears the name of its possessor. Besides this, the names of all those who obtain one of the three above-mentioned rewards are engraved on marble tablets, which adorn the walls of one of the halls of the Academic building.

Should any of the Students feel no inclination for the service of the General Staff, even after a successful termination of the Theoretical Course, he may always request to be dismissed to his Regiment, Artillery Brigade, or Sapper Battalion.

Every Officer who at his departure from the Academy obtains a testimonial of having accomplished the object of his admission, and in consequence is provisionally destined for the service of the General Staff, if he continues after his return to his Regiment to educate himself for his vocation, and distinguishes himself by observance of a strict discipline, by conduct and zeal for the service, is rewarded at the end of a year by being completely transferred to the General Staff; and if he belonged to the Young Guard, the Artillery, or a Sapper Battalion, his right to promotion immediately commences; not so if he belonged to Troops of the Line.

Every year, on the 1st of January, the Chief of the Regiment, Artillery Brigade, or Sapper Battalion in command of an Officer reckoned as of the General Staff, forwards his form and his conduct list to the Quartermaster-General of the General Staff, who lays it before the Chief of the General Staff. At the same time the above-mentioned papers are communicated to the Chief in command of the Officer.

Besides this, the above-mentioned Chief makes a similar report on the zeal for the service and moral conduct of the Officers twice a year, namely, on the 1st of March and the 1st of September; and at the same time reports exactly on the way in which he performs the service of the front.

No Officer reckoned as of the General Staff is to be charged with the duties of Paymaster service in his Regiment, or employed as Quartermaster; and if any General wishes to select him for his Adjutant, he must first communicate with the Quartermaster-General of the General Staff.

If the General Staff is increased in time of war, or if any work on which it is employed requires to be accelerated in time of peace, the Chief of the General Staff commissions the Quartermaster-General to select the requisite number out of the Officers who are reckoned as of the General Staff. The latter then makes the selection, and announces the names of the Officers selected to their highest Commanding Officer. As soon as the object proposed is accomplished, these Officers return back to their commands. Such a selection, however, can only fall upon those who have spent at least two years with their commands after their departure from the Academy. If in the meantime an Officer has become Chief of a Battalion or Squadron, he shall not be transferred from this post before the lapse of a year. As soon as any of these Officers, or, in general, any Officer, who has left the Academy, reports himself at

his Corps, his Chief immediately announces his arrival to the Quartermaster-General of the Staff.

To familiarize the Officers reckoned of the General Staff with the rules of the Art of War while they remain with their commands, and to practice them in the duties which belong to Officers of the General Staff, the Quartermaster-General is directed to charge them with such duties as may develop their talent, without, however, removing them for that purpose from the service of the front. These commissions of the Quartermaster-General are communicated through their superior Officers, who are directed not only to watch over their performance of these commissions, but also to assist them therein to the utmost of their power.

IX. DANIEL H. BARNES.

BY GULIAN C. VERPLANK.*

DANIEL H. BARNES was born in the county of Columbia, in the State of New York, in the year 1785, and was educated at Union College, in Schenectady. He early devoted himself to the instruction of youth, and soon after he had completed his collegiate course, was appointed master of the Grammar School attached to Union College. Here he gained not only experience but reputation, and some years after, was chosen Principal of the respectable Academy at Poughkeepsie, one of the incorporated seminaries of education under the patronage and visitation of the Regents of the University of New York. That institution flourished under his charge for several years, and in it many individuals, now filling honorable stations in various walks of life, received the most valuable part of their classical and scientific education. He was, however, tempted to leave this station by an invitation to Cincinnati, Ohio, where he was placed at the head of an incorporated academic or collegiate establishment for the higher branches of education. At Cincinnati, his situation was honorable, and his services, as usual, were laborious and successful. The enterprise, the activity, the rapid growth and improvement so conspicuous in that country, unparalleled in its progress, in population, cultivation and refinement, were congenial to the unwearied activity and benevolent ardor of his own mind. The yet unexplored natural riches of that region of the west, added, besides, fresh excitements to his liberal and indefatigable curiosity.

But he found the climate of Ohio unfriendly to his constitution, and was reluctantly obliged some years ago to resign his duties there, and return to his native air on the Atlantic coast. He then established a private classical school in this city, where he soon acquired the same reputation which he had enjoyed at other places of his residence. In this city, his mind was enlarged and excited by

* This Memoir was prepared by Hon. Gulian C. Verplanck, President of the Trustees of the New York High School Society, soon after the death of Mr. Barnes, and published in the Fourth Annual Report of that Society, in 1828.

new objects of curiosity and instruction, and the society of men eminent in various ways for talent or acquirement. His studies took a wider range. He became an ardent and successful student of Natural History. From the study of the languages and literature of antiquity, he advanced on to the higher branches of Philology, and the Philosophy of language. He improved his knowledge of chemical and physical science, and became conversant with their application to the useful arts.

During this period, too, his early and deep-seated religious convictions and feelings, which had long ruled his life, led him to the more regular and systematic study of theology, and he became an ordained minister of the Baptist church.

Sensible, doubtless, that the instruction of youth was the peculiar talent which had been intrusted to him, and believing that he could thus, "according to his ability," best serve his Master, he never became the regular pastor of any church or congregation. His appearance in the pulpit was, therefore, rare and occasional; but I am told that his discourses and public prayers were distinguished for the soundness of their doctrine and the earnest fervor of their eloquence. His theological opinions were those of the Calvinistic Baptists. That he believed the doctrines he professed, firmly and conscientiously, his life is a proof. That sincerity in his own belief was united in him with charity for those who differed from it, is attested by his friendly connection in this institution with an Associate Principal of the Society of Friends, and a Board of Trustees of various other denominations; and still more by the earnestness and fidelity with which, on proper occasions, he here enforced the great principles of faith and morals, upon a large body of pupils educated in all the different modes of worship known amongst us, without ever irritating the feelings, or exciting the prejudices of any parent or pupil.

The respect and confidence with which he was regarded by that numerous and respectable body of Christians with whom he was immediately connected, were shown, first, by his appointment to a Professorship of Hebrew and Greek, in a Theological institution, founded some years ago, for the instruction of candidates for the ministry in the Baptist church, and more recently, by his unanimous election to the office of President of the Columbian College in the District of Columbia, a seminary of general learning under the peculiar, though not exclusive patronage and government of the same communion. This last appointment, after some suspense, he relinquished in favor of the High School, to which he had been devoted from its foundation.

Our deceased friend's natural ardor of mind, directed, as it always was, by the sense of duty and the sentiments of philanthropy, made him one of those who can never become the slaves of routine and custom, and who can not be content with what is merely well, as long as it seems practicable to make it better. Alike in the government of his own heart and conscience, in the pursuits of science, and in the business of education, his constant aspiration was to improvement.

His attention was early directed to the monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster, and its extension from simple elementary instruction to the mathematics, ancient and modern languages, and such branches of science as do not require the aid of lectures or experiment. He had satisfied himself of the value of this system by trial on a small scale, in his own private classes, when his confidence in its efficacy was increased by its successful application in the High School of Edinburgh, by Prof. Pillans, as well as by the attestations of Drs. Mann and D'Oyley, to its use in the Charter-House School of London.

He, therefore, eagerly coöperated in the foundation of the High School for boys, in 1824, became one of the two Associate Principals, and continued the faithful and efficient head of the classical department until his death.

The school was often thronged with visitors and teachers from abroad, anxious to learn and diffuse its methods of instruction; and one of the best proofs of its merit, and that of its principals, is the fact that it was the model of numerous and most valuable similar establishments in various parts of the Union.

It was in the midst of this career of useful and honorable service that he was snatched from us.

He had been invited last month by the trustees and officers of the "Rensselaer School," recently founded near Troy, by the well-judged munificence of one of our most honored, and patriotic citizens, to attend their annual examination. He had taken great interest in this school from its foundation, as it had been in part modeled on the plan of his own system of instruction, and because it combines with the usual elementary course, the rudiments of natural and physical science, and the practice of agriculture.

"I must go," said he, in words of fatal import. I need not detail the circumstances of his death. On his way thither he was thrown from a stage, and expired a few hours afterward.

He died regretted and honored by all who knew his public ser-

vices, and deeply mourned by those friends who more intimately knew and loved his private virtues.

In this simple narrative of Mr. Barnes's life, much of his character has been anticipated. It is due, however, to his memory to say something more of his character as a scholar and a man of science, and his merit as an instructor.

He was an excellent classical scholar, accurately skilled in the Latin and Greek languages, to which he added considerable acquirements in the Hebrew, and a familiar acquaintance with modern languages and literature. As a philologist, like other zealous cultivators of that branch of study, he was perhaps disposed to push favorite theories to an extreme; but he was learned, acute, and philosophical. His acquirements in mathematics were highly respectable, but I think that he never devoted himself to this science with the same zeal as to other collateral studies.

It is probably as a Naturalist, that his name will be best known to posterity, as it already is in Europe. He was a most industrious member of the Lyceum of Natural History in this city, a society which without parade, or public patronage, displaying in a rare degree the love of learning without the parade of it, has for many years cultivated the natural sciences with admirable zeal, industry, and success. They have joined us in paying the last honors to the memory of our deceased associate, and it is to one of their members, himself a naturalist of well-earned reputation, that I am indebted for the following brief, but very honorable tribute to Mr. Barnes's labors and attainments as a naturalist.

"About the year 1819, he turned his attention to the Natural Sciences, and his connection with the Lyceum of this city, nearly at the same time, gave additional impulse to the characteristic zeal with which he prosecuted his new studies. The departments of Mineralogy and Geology occupied his attention, and the first fruits of his inquiries are to be found in a paper read before the Lyceum, entitled a "Geological survey of the Canaan mountains, with observations on the soil and productions of the neighboring regions."* In this paper he showed himself well conversant with Botany and Zoölogy. To this latter branch of Natural History he subsequently devoted his leisure hours with greater avidity; and communicated to the Lyceum a curious and original paper, "On the Genera Unio et Alasmodonta,"† a family of fresh water shells distinguished for their beauty and their almost infinite variety of form. Shortly after ap-

* Subsequently published in the Fifth volume of Silliman's Journal.

† See Silliman's Journal for 1823.

peared in the annals of the Lyceum, several other papers from Mr. Barnes, on similar subjects. Two of these may be particularly noted, one on "the Genus Cluton," and the other on "the doubtful reptiles."

The reputation of Mr. Barnes as a naturalist, will be immovably established upon his memoir on the shells of his country. The introductory observations applicable to the whole study of Conchology are marked by that precision, clearness, and lucid order for which he was remarkable. He described above twenty new species; and a short time before his death, he received a flattering proof of the estimation in which his labors were held by the learned of Europe.

The great and splendid work of Humboldt, on Mexico, of which the Zoölogical part is now in course of publication, contains beautiful plates and descriptions of the genera just referred to. The first zoölogical critic of Europe, (the Baron de Ferussac,) in commenting upon this work, points out many errors into which the author has fallen; "errors," he observes, "which had arisen from his not having consulted the works of American naturalists, and especially the labors of Mr. Barnes."

As a naturalist, Mr. Barnes had very peculiar qualifications. Familiar with the learned and several modern languages, he was enabled to pursue his investigations beyond the narrow limits of his own. His inquiries were conducted with a caution, a patience, and a modest diffidence, which can not be too much imitated. He was scrupulously exact in his descriptions, and exhibited a laudable hesitation at generalizing from obscure or doubtful premises. Engaged in laborious avocations, which occupied the greatest part of his time, it was only in hastily snatched intervals of leisure, that he could devote himself to those pursuits which form the serious business of life, with those who have gained distinction in them. The reputation, however, of a scientific man does not depend upon the quantity of his writings, and if it should be said that Barnes has written little, when compared with the labors of the professed naturalist, let it be remembered that that little has been done singularly well."

In addition to this just and discriminating character, I have only to add that he never regarded these acquisitions, or indeed any others not immediately entering into the uses of life, as of ultimate value in themselves. He cherished and cultivated the study of Nature as furnishing truer conceptions of the Creator's wisdom, as giving employment to the understanding and habits of accurate and attentive observation, and as frequently and often unexpectedly leading to results increasing the power or the happiness of man.

With these views of the objects of the science, whilst in his more elaborate printed essays he addressed the scientific naturalist, he was wont, in occasional popular lectures to his pupils, to unfold to them the infinite beauty, the diversified simplicity of the order of nature. To borrow the eloquent language of an accomplished scholar,* who amidst the laborious occupations of a busy life, has found leisure to become the first naturalist of our country; he taught them how, by the light of science, "the very earth on which we tread becomes animate—every rock, every plant, every insect presents to our view an organization so wonderful, so varied, so complex—an adaptation of means to ends so simple, so diversified, so extensive, so perfect, that the wisdom of man shrinks abashed at the comparison. Nor is it to present existence that our observations are confined. The mind may thus be enabled to retrace the march of ages—to examine of the earth the revolutions that have formed and deranged its structure—of its inhabitants, the creation, the dissolution, the continual reproduction—to admire that harmony which, while it has taught each being instinctively to pursue the primary objects of its creation, has rendered them all subservient to secondary purposes." With the same eloquent naturalist he might have added, "The study of Natural History has been for many years the occupation of my leisure moments; it is a merited tribute to say, that it has lightened for me many a heavy, and smoothed many a rugged hour; that beguiled by its charms I have found no road rough or difficult, no journey tedious, no country desolate or barren. In solitude never solitary, in a desert never without employment. I have found it a relief from the languor of idleness, the pressure of business, and the unavoidable calamities of life."

In his own profession, as a teacher of youth, Mr. Barnes had long enjoyed a merited reputation. Able and willing to teach, and to teach well, all those branches of knowledge which the wants or opinions of society require, as essential for pursuits of active life, he did not consider the mere drilling of his pupils in those studies as a sufficient discharge of his duty. He felt a warm and parental interest in them, and delighted to throw before them such collateral information as might stimulate their curiosity, or, without the labor of formal duty, enrich their minds with hints and outlines of science as might in after life be filled up and completed.

He was accordingly peculiarly well adapted to the institution over which he presided. It was our hope, in founding these schools, that

* Stephen Elliott, President of the Bank of South Carolina, "Address before the Literary and Philosophical Society of Charleston, S. C."

whilst the learned languages would be well taught, accurate instruction might also be given in all those practical parts of education which fit men for the daily business of life. The experiment has been satisfactory; and whilst the pupils of Mr. Barnes, who have entered the several colleges, have not fallen behind in any important part of classical learning, there have gone forth every year from the school a number of other youth with minds habituated to well-directed and profitable application, and liberalized and invigorated by various and valuable knowledge.

Nor were the peculiar obligations of the minister of a holy religion, forgotten by him in those of the teacher of human learning. He omitted none of those opportunities which the course of discipline and instruction constantly presented, to impress on those under his care notions of sound morals, to correct those of false honor and pride, to awaken rational piety, or to quicken those moral sensibilities, which, though they may be dormant in youth, are rarely dead.

It has been to me a source of pleasure, though a melancholy one, that in rendering this public tribute to the worth of our departed friend, the respectable members of two bodies, one of them the most devoted and efficient in its scientific inquiries, the other comprising so many names eminent for philanthropy and learning, have met to do honor to the memory of a SCHOOLMASTER.

There are prouder themes for the eulogist than this. The praise of the statesman, the warrior, or the orator, furnish more splendid topics for ambitious eloquence; but no theme can be more rich in desert, or more fruitful in public advantage.

The enlightened liberality of many of our State governments, (amongst which we may claim a proud distinction for our own,) has, by extending the common school system over their whole population, brought elementary education to the door of every family. In this State, it appears from the Annual Reports of the Secretary of the State, there are besides the fifty incorporated academies and numerous private schools, between eight and nine thousand school districts, in each of which instruction is regularly given. These contained last year, 441,850 children.*

Of what incalculable influence, then, for good or for evil, upon the dearest interests of society, must be the estimate entertained for the character of this great body of teachers, and the consequent respectability of the individuals who compose it!

At the recent general election of this State, the votes of 276,000

* In 1863, besides Colleges with 2,688 students, and 90 incorporated Academies and Public High Schools with 35,198 pupils, there were 11,734 Common School Districts, with 15,703 teachers, and 386,550 pupils, at a total expense of $4,381,287,85.

persons were taken. In thirty years the great majority of these will have passed away; their right will be exercised, and their duties assumed by those very children, whose minds are now open to receive their earliest and most durable impressions from the ten thousand schoolmasters of this State.

What else is there in the whole of our social system of such extensive and powerful operation on the national character? There is one other influence more powerful, and but one. It is that of the MOTHER. The forms of a free government, the provisions of wise legislation, the schemes of the statesman, the sacrifices of the patriot, are as nothing compared with these. If the future citizens of our republic are to be worthy of their rich inheritance, they must be made so principally through the virtue and intelligence of their Mothers. It is in the school of maternal tenderness that the kind affections must be first roused and made habitual—the early sentiment of piety awakened and rightly directed—the sense of duty and moral responsibility unfolded and enlightened. But next in rank and in efficacy to that pure and holy source of moral influence is that of the Schoolmaster. It is powerful already. What would it be if in every one of those school districts which we now count by annually increasing thousands, there were to be found one teacher well-informed, without pedantry, religious without bigotry or fanaticism, proud and fond of his profession, and honored in the discharge of its duties? How wide would be the intellectual, the moral influence of such a body of men. Many such we have amongst us. But to raise up a body of such men they and their calling must be cherished and honored.

The Schoolmaster's occupation is laborious and ungrateful; its rewards are scanty and precarious. He may indeed be, and he ought to be, animated by the consciousness of doing good, that best of all consolations, that noblest of all motives. But that too, must be often clouded by doubt and uncertainty. Obscure and inglorious as his daily occupation may appear to learned pride or wordly ambition, yet to be successful and happy, he must be animated by the spirit of the same great principles which inspired the most illustrious benefactors of mankind. If he bring to his task high talent and rich acquirement, he must be content to look into distant years for the proof that his labors have not been wasted—that the good seed which he daily scatters abroad does not fall on stony ground and wither away, or among thorns to be choked by the cares, the delusions, or the vices of the world. He must solace his toils with the same prophetic faith which enabled the greatest of modern

philosophers,* amidst the neglect or contempt of his own times, to regard himself as sowing the seeds of truth for posterity, and the care of Heaven. He must arm himself against disappointment and mortification, with a portion of that same noble confidence which soothed the greatest of modern poets when weighed down by care and danger, by poverty, old age, and blindness—

> ——— In prophetic dream he saw
> The youth unborn, with pious awe,
> Imbibe each virtue from his sacred page.

How imperious then the obligation upon every enlightened citizen who knows and feels the value of such men, to aid them, to cheer them, and to honor them!

One of the establishments of this society was designed, we hope successfully, to improve and extend female education. Our other institution for male education, has had, besides its direct effect, the happy incidental one of elevating the station, enlarging the usefulness, and contributing to raise the character of the Schoolmaster amongst us.

Humble then as our labors in founding and fostering this institution may seem, and limited as they are in their sphere of action, we may look back to them with the purest satisfaction, since their certain fruit must be, the diffusion of light, and truth, and virtue, through the purest and most powerful of agents, the MOTHER and the SCHOOLMASTER.

* Bacon, "*Serere posteris ac Deo immortali.*"

X. MILITARY SYSTEM AND EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

I. MILITARY SYSTEM.

The British army originated in the feudal system, by which the great barons were bound to furnish a contingent to the army of the State; and their vassals were bound to attend them in person, and to furnish each the contributions in men, horses, arms, and other materials of war, for which he was liable by the tenure on which he held his lands. When regal power absorbed the privileges of the great feudatories, the people were expected to provide themselves with arms, and, in case of invasion, to respond to the summons issued through officers commissioned by the sovereign to array the fittest men for service in each county. In the time of Henry VIII, lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants of counties were first appointed as standing officers for assembling and mustering the military forces. For a time, contracts were made with "captains," who undertook to provide, clothe, and feed a certain number of fighting men for a given money allowance. In the reign of Charles I, the important question arose, whether the King of England did or did not possess the right to maintain a military force without the express consent of Parliament. Charles II, was compelled to abandon all control of the army, except a body guard of 5,000 men, sanctioned by Parliament. These regiments still exist, and are proud of their genealogy. They are the First Foot Guards, Coldstream Guards, Life Guard, Oxford Blues, the Royal Scots, and the Second Queen's Royals."* The Declaration of Rights, in the time of William and Mary, settled in positive terms "that the raising and keeping of a standing army in time of peace, without consent of Parliament, is contrary to law." The first Mustering Act was passed in 1689, to last for six months; but it has been annually renewed ever since, except in three particular years; and it constitutes the only warrant on which the whole military system of England is exercised by the sovereign with the consent of Parliament. For 172 years, with only three interruptions, the ministers of the crown have an-

* Two regiments created in the reigns of Richard III, and of Henry VIII, the first styled *Gentlemen Pensioners*, or *Gentlemen at Arms*, consisting originally exclusively of noblemen, and the latter, *Yeomen of the Guard*, still exist. The latter is the only body that has the privilege of traversing London with flags flying, drums beating, and fixed bayonets.

nually applied to Parliament for permission to raise a military force and for money to defray expenses. The sovereign can make war and bestow military employment and honors; but the House of Commons can refuse supplies.

Military service in England is voluntary, except in rare cases, and then only in the militia. As the chances of promotion from the ranks are small, the recruits are drawn from the most necessitous classes of the community, or the least fitted for industrial pursuits. The system of recruiting, with the bounty and machinery of deception is the most characteristic feature of the British army as compared with those of Europe, and makes the distinction between officers and men more broad than in any other service.

The British army, in its completeness, is theoretically commanded by the sovereign, assisted by the secretary of state for war in some matters, and by the commander-in-chief in others. The component parts are the household troops, the infantry of the line, the ordnance corps, comprising artillery and engineers, and the marines. There are also certain corps, raised and belonging to the principal colonies; the troops in India; the yeomanry cavalry; the dockyard battalions; the volunteer artillery and rifles; the enrolled pensioners, etc. In 1814, the regular army reached 200,000, and at the close of the war, 10,000 officers were retained on half pay. In 1860–61, in the army estimates, provision was made for the following force, viz.:

	Home and Colonies.	India.	Total.
Cavalry	11,667	7,243	18,910
Infantry	103,169	66,345	169,514
Artillery	22,675	5,482	28,157
Engineers	4,730	——	4,730
Staff & Depot	1,121	13,420	14,541
Total	143,362	92,490	235,852

Under the column "India" are included only troops *sent* to India, and paid for out of the Indian revenues. Of the total 235,852 forces, 10,459 are officers, 17,670 non-commissioned officers, and 207,723 rank and file. For the use of this army, 24,342 horses are provided. The total expenditure sanctioned by Parliament in 1860 was £14,800,000, viz.:

Military Pay and Allowances, £5,500,000; Civil Salaries and Wages, £1,800,000; Stores and Works of every kind, £ 5,400,000; Pensions, Retired Pay, &c., £2,100,000.

The military force of various kinds within the United Kingdom, excluding the troops in East India, on the 1st of June, 1860, was 323,259, viz.:

Regulars (service companies,) 68,778; Regulars (depot companies,) 33,302, Embodied Militia, 15,911; Disembodied Militia—Effectives, 52,899; Yeomanry Cavalry—Effectives, 15,002; Enrolled Pensioners—Effectives, 15,000; Volunteer Rifles and Artillery, 122,867.

MILITARY EDUCATION.

THE following account of the institutions for military education in England is abridged from an article in *Blackwood's Magazine* for November, 1858:

There exist in this country three military seminaries—the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, where youths are educated for service in the Artillery and Engineers; the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, where cadets are prepared for the Infantry and Cavalry; and the Honorable East India Company's Military School at Addiscombe, which educates simultaneously for the Artillery, Engineers, and Infantry services of the three Presidencies. Supplementary to these are the School of Practical Instruction at Chatham, where passed cadets from Woolwich and Addiscombe learn practical engineering; and the senior department at Sandhurst, supposed to be a Staff school, into which officers of infantry and cavalry are, under certain restrictions, admitted.

I. The Military Academy at Woolwich came into existence in the year 1741. It was created by George II., to supply a want under which the English army then suffered, by giving some instructions in matters connected with their respective arts to officers and men who served in the Artillery and in the Engineers. Its beginnings were of the humblest imaginable order. A single room in a house at Woolwich, where the Board of Ordnance used occasionally to assemble, was set apart by Government as a hall of study; and two masters were appointed to give lectures by rotation, during four consecutive hours, in three days of every week. At first only the officers of the single battalion composing the English Artillery and of the corps of Engineers were required to attend. By and by the room was thrown open to the non-commissioned officers and privates also, and eventually the cadets, of whom five were supposed to be on the strength of each company of Artillery, repaired thither in like manner. But the cadets being the sons of the officers of the corps, as they neither dressed in uniform, nor were under any military control, proved very difficult to manage; and the difficulty led to a great change as well in their condition as in that of the Academy itself.

In the year 1744 the cadets were, for the first time, clothed in uniform, and collected into a distinct company. Two officers, with a drum-major, undertook the management of them; and the arrangement worked, or was supposed to work, so satisfactorily, that by little and little, as the regiment enlarged itself, the numbers composing the Cadet Company were increased also. In 1782 they had grown from twenty to sixty; in 1798 to a hundred; after which steps were taken to lodge and board, as well as to educate and drill them, apart from the residences of their fathers. Hence, after trying for a while to accommodate some in a separate barrack, while others were billeted on private persons at a payment of 2s. a day per head, the pile which now attracts the attention of the passer-by on Woolwich Common was erected. And by the addition of a lieutenant-governor, and a whole host of officers and professors, it grew into the sort of establishment which is familiar to most of us. In 1806 the staff of officers and teachers appointed to the Cadet Company consisted of—

1. Lieutenant-Governor; 2. Inspector; 3. Professor of Mathematics; 4. Professor of Fortification; 5. Mathematical Master; 6. Arithmetical do.; 7. French do.; 8. Fortification do.; 9. Landscape-drawing do.; 10. Figure-drawing do.; 11. Second French do.; 12. Fencing do.; 13. Dancing do.; 14. First Modeller; 15. Second do.: 16. Clerk.

In 1829 the fencing and dancing masters were discontinued, and a chemical lecturer appointed. In 1836 three new masters were added; and in 1857 the staff stood thus:

Military.—A Governor; one Second Captain, commanding; one do. for Practical Class; four First-Lieutenants; one Quartermaster; one Staff-Sergeant; seven Drill-Sergeants; one Paymaster's Clerk; one Assistant do.; Servants.

Civil or Educational.—A Chaplain; Inspector—a Lieut.-Colonel of Artillery; Assistant do.—Major, R. E.; Professor of Fortification—Lieut.-Col., R. E.; two Assistants—Second Captains; Professor of Mathematics; seven Mathematical Masters; Master of Descriptive Geometry; Master for Geometrical Drawing; Drawing-Master for Landscape; Second do.; Master for Military Plan-Drawing—Brevet-Major, R. A.; Instructor in Surveying and Field Works—Captain, R. E.; Assistant do.—Captain, R. A.; Instructor in Practical Artillery—Second Captain, R. A.; Assistant do.—Second Captain, R. A.; four French Masters; four

German do.; Master for History and Geography; Lecturer in Chemistry; Assistant to do.; Lecturer in Geology and Mineralogy; Lecturer in Practical Mechanics, Machinery, and Metallurgy; Lecturer in Astronomy and Natural Philosophy; Clerk; First Assistant do.—a Sergeant; Second do.—Bombardier; one Drill-Sergeant—Practical Class; Modeller, Modelling Smith, Servants, &c.

Admittance to the Academy was, till very lately, obtained only on the nomination of the Master-General of the Ordnance. There was a preliminary examination, it is true; but this all except the dullest might calculate on passing, and the ages of entrance ranged between fourteen and sixteen. In 1835 the minimum age was raised to fifteen, the maximum to seventeen; while candidates were called up to compete for admission in the proportion of four youths for every three vacancies. The arrangement did not avail to produce any radical change in the spirit of the institution. The preliminary examination still proved to be a "pass," and no more; and so it continued till those political views obtained the ascendant which abolished altogether the office of Master-General and Board of Ordnance, and gave us in their place a Secretary of State for the War Department.

Occasions had arisen, even under the old regime, when young men were permitted to enter the service of the Artillery under what may be called exceptional conditions. During the pressure of the great war of the French Revolution, the demand for officers became at one time so urgent, that it was found necessary to dispense with a regular academical education, and to give commissions to candidates who were pronounced by competent examiners sufficiently conversant with mathematics and physical science to enter upon the practical duties of their profession. Lord Panmure, taking advantage of the precedent thus furnished, threw open Artillery commissions in 1855, and has continued ever since to treat admission into the Royal Military Academy as a prize for which the youth of the United Kingdom may freely compete.

The subjects of study to be pursued in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, not less than the mode of dealing with them, and the text-books to be used, have hitherto been prescribed to the most minute particular by regulation. They embrace Mathematics, Fortification, Descriptive Geometry, French, German, Plan-Drawing, Geometrical Drawing, Landscape Drawing, History and Geography; to which, during his continuance in what are called the "theoretical classes," the attention of the cadet is confined. When he enters the "practical class," the student is instructed, over and above, in Practical Artillery, Surveying and Field-Works, and attends lectures in Astronomy, Chemistry, Geology, and Mineralogy. As many as five years may be spent by a young man in going over this course—viz., four years in the "theoretical," and one year in the "practical" class—though the average period of actual residence does not appear to exceed two years and a half or three years. There are periodical examinations at the end of every half-year, the second of which, by its results, determines whether the young man shall be allowed to go on to a commission, or be removed from the Academy.

The moral tone of this military college has never, we regret to say, been of a very high order. Excellent men have been at the head of it, and the ability of the professors and teachers appointed to instruct admits of no question. Yet few right-minded officers look back upon the years spent in the cadet barracks except with disgust. It is not very difficult to account for the circumstance. Long after Continental nations had seen the absurdity of pressing upon boys the sort of training which belongs to men, we refused to be guided by their experience, and persisted, both at Woolwich and elsewhere, in our endeavor to accomplish an impossibility. "Boys of fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen," says a very high authority on this subject, "require much personal supervision in order to form their characters, which young officers, very often appointed without any sufficient knowledge of their tempers and habits, cannot be expected to bestow. Such officers may indeed be able to superintend drill, but not moral training. Rarely do they draw the cadets towards them, and become their advisers; more frequently repel them by a harsh dictatorial manner, the cadet being in their eyes a soldier. There has been also, during all the time I have known the Academy, great inconsistency in treating the cadets. Honor is constantly

talked of, and yet doubts as to their truthfulness are not unfrequently expressed. I have heard even the lie given in rough and emphatic terms. Confidence is professedly placed, and yet offences are found out in a way that shows that no confidence existed. Hence a contest arises between the officer and cadet, and the latter becomes tricky and disingenuous."

In these emphatic words Colonel Portlock has struck at the root of most of the evil which has long been felt, and heretofore combated without success, in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. Whatever is wanting in the morale of that establishment, it owes to the original sin of its constitution. We know how to deal with boys so long as we recognize their boyhood, even while appealing to the point of honor among them. But we no sooner dress them up in uniform, and affect to treat them as soldiers, than we lose all moral control over them. They smoke, drink, swear, and fall into other vices, not because they are overcome by any irresistible temptation, but because they look upon such acts as tokens of manhood. And the corporals, who report readily enough for insubordination, and the officers, who punish for what they call military offences, take little heed of worse things; partly because, in a military point of view, they are scarcely criminal; partly because, not being regarded as such, they are seldom brought under the notice of the superior authorities. How a seminary so conducted and so managed should have given to the Artillery and Engineers a body of officers distinguished, as those of both arms unquestionably are for talent, intelligence, and gentlemanly bearing, would be inexplicable, were not the fact well known, that one of the first lessons taught to the young lieutenant, after quitting the Academy, is to throw off the habits which he had contracted there, and to adopt the high moral tone and excellent habits of his regiment.

It was partly with a view to provide a palliative for this admitted evil, partly to encourage in our young Artillery officers the habit of sustained study, that they were required, by a recent regulation, "to place themselves under the orders of a director of studies for half a year after obtaining their commissions. Meanwhile cadets who are appointed to the Engineers proceed to the training-school for that arm at Chatham; where they go through a somewhat careful course of surveying, and are instructed less elaborately in architecture, civil as well as military, and in mining, sapping, pontooning, and so forth. According to the report of the Commissioners, it does not appear that they reach their new field of instruction over and above well prepared to make the most of it. Indeed, the whole of the Woolwich system is by these gentlemen condemned in terms as decided as is consistent with good breeding.

II. It was not till the year 1804 that the propriety of training young men in ever so slight a degree for the service of the infantry and cavalry, seems to have occurred to any statesman or soldier in this country. Appointments to both arms took place for a time by purchase only, and by and by, when the numbers of the rank and file increased, through the weight of influence, personal, political, or social. Moreover, when the pressure of the great war was at its height, a third door of entrance to military rank was opened, and ensigncies and captaincies, and even lieutenant-colonelcies, became the prize of private gentlemen who were able to bring certain fixed contingents of able-bodied men under the royal standard. So far as the candidates for commissions themselves were concerned, however, the same even-handed justice was meted out to all. Nobody took the trouble to inquire whether the candidates were qualified morally, intellectually, or physically. He might be a pimp and blockhead, or lame, or deaf, or blind; but so long as his patron had the ear of the Government, or the men whom he brought with him were able to pass muster, his commission, whatever it might be, was secure.

The Military College at Sandhurst consisted at first, as it still consists, of two departments—one, called the Junior Department, for cadets—the other, the Senior Department, for officers desirous of qualifying for the Staff. But it had, in its original constitution, this marked advantage over the arrangement which has since been effected, that whereas now cadets and officers occupy portions of the same range of buildings, and come under the instruc-

tion of the same professors, they were, in 1804 placed, the one at Marlow, the other at Highwickam—each class of students having its own teachers, though both were subject to the control and management of the same military administration.

As first constituted, the junior department afforded both an asylum and a place of education for the sons of officers exclusively. Youths once admitted ceased to be a burden to their friends, except for the necessary expenses of travelling; they were housed, clothed, and educated at the public expense. But no sooner was the great war ended than Parliament began to slacken in its gratitude to the army, and by little and little the grants for military education fell off, till in the end they ceased altogether. As a necessary consequence, the numbers of persons seeking education at the Military College fell off in like manner. And now the junior department exhibits a muster-roll of 180 cadets only, while the strength of the senior department has dwindled to nine individuals. To be sure, other causes than the withdrawal of public support from the institution have operated to produce this latter result. Whatever it might have been forty years ago, the senior department at Sandhurst is certainly no Staff school now. Indeed, the only science effectively taught there seems to be mathematics; and it is a curious fact, that though the army abounds with officers who have passed through that school, and taken high honors, the instances are rare in which Staff appointments have fallen to the lot of any of them.

Lads are admitted into the junior department at Sandhurst between the ages of thirteen and fifteen. The preliminary examination is of the most trivial kind, and the instruction communicated is, for half the course, that of a common school not of the highest order. No doubt each youth may, if he be disposed, master more than the elements of a good deal of science; for over and above physical geography and history, instruction is given in practical astronomy, dynamics, and statics, practical mechanics, co-ordinate geometry, the differential and integral calculus, trigonometry and mensuration, Euclid's Geometry, attack and defence of fortresses, practical field-fortification, course of military surveying, the Latin, French, and German languages. Unfortunately, however, there is no compulsion to study, nor any inducement, unless the youth aspire to win for himself a commission without purchase.

III. The Hon. East India Company's College at Addiscombe approaches nearer in its constitution and objects to what a military school ought to be, than any other of which we can boast in this country. It came into existence in 1818, previously to which date the Directors were in the habit of sending to Woolwich, for instruction, youths to whom they had given cadetships in the Company's Artillery and Engineers. When first founded, it was intended as a place of training exclusively for these young gentlemen; but the benefits derived from it became so obvious and so great that the Court of Directors gradually enlarged its views, and now young men are educated at Addiscombe not only for the Company's Artillery and Engineers, but for their infantry also. And herein it is that the Directors have mixed up evil with good. They consider an Engineer cadetship as their great prize, and next to that a cadetship of Artillery; and they select for these appointments, not the youths who may have exhibited special talents for either arm, but the best men, or the men reported as generally best, of their batch. The consequence is, that to the infantry—for good service in which talent is as much required as for either the Artillery or Engineers—the idlers of the College are appointed, while many a clever lad, who would have shone as an infantry officer, becomes an indifferent engineer or gunner, simply because he has been posted to an arm for the practical operation of which he has no genius.

In all other respects the Military School at Addiscombe may be fairly said to surpass both Woolwich and Sandhurst. In the first place, youths enter there almost invariably at a more mature age. Though eligible for admission after completing their fifteenth year, they seldom, if ever, come up for examination till after they have turned seventeen. In the next place, the entrance examination is more severe than either at Woolwich or Sandhurst:

and in the third and last place—and this is the most important condition of the whole—cadets must complete their course at Addiscombe in two years, unless for special reasons, such as sickness, they be allowed to prolong their stay one half-year more. Now, lads may linger on at Woolwich four, and even five years, gaining this remarkable advantage from their stupidity, that when forced to compete at last for choice between Artillery and Engineers, they compete with youths who may have had but two years' training. And at Sandhurst, the course which nominally covers four years, may, if the youth have interest at headquarters, be completed, as far as his appointment to a commission completes it, in four months.

The general education given at Addiscombe is certainly not inferior to that which the cadets receive either at Woolwich or at Sandhurst. It embraces, indeed, almost entirely the same subjects which are set down in the curriculum of the others—including lectures in geology, chemistry, and artillery. But it undeniably falls short in specialties. Hence, after completing his course at Addiscombe, the Company's cadet intended for the Engineers proceeds to Chatham, where, side by side with young men from Woolwich, he receives practical instruction in his art. For the Artillery cadet, on the other hand, there is no practical school. Like his comrade intended for the service of the Infantry, he proceeds at once from Addiscombe to India, and learns there how to turn to account the theoretical lessons which have been communicated to him at home.

Another distinction deserves to be noted between the constitution of the school of Addiscombe, and that as well of the Royal Military College as of the Royal Military Academy: Though all alike put from them the eleemosynary element, at Addiscombe alone is strict impartiality in the matter of payments observed. The youth who enters there, whether he be the son of an earl or of a subaltern's widow, must be provided with his £100 a year, besides about £25 more to cover the cost of books, instruments, and uniforms. Both at Woolwich and Sandhurst there is a graduated scale, which exacts more from a general officer than from a subaltern, and more from a civilian than from either. The orphan of an officer dying in poor circumstances is admitted into Woolwich on payment of £20 a year. He pays for similar privileges at Sandhurst £40. The son of a gentleman in civil life pays in both cases £125, a sum more than necessary to cover the expenses of his own board and education, but which is exacted in order that there may be a surplus out of which the deficiencies occasioned by the payments of the sons of officers shall be made good.

Most important changes in the system of Military Education in England have been introduced since 1855, by Lord Panmure and the Council of Military Education, inaugurated under his auspices.

1. Admission to the various Military Schools is now gained by open competitive examination.

2. The order and method of studies, and all examinations for promotion, are governed by an independent Board of competent officers, and men of service, called the Council of Military Education.

3. The amount and order of studies in each school are minutely arranged, and each Professor is kept to the prescribed course by the supervision of a Master of Studies.

4. The development of the Staff School has given completeness to the system.

III. FRENCH VIEW OF ENGLISH MILITARY SCHOOLS.

M. Alphonse Esquiros, in the *Révue des Deux Mondes* of September 1860, contributes two articles on the military schools and institutions of England, from which we make a few extracts:

THE MILITARY SPIRIT AND PREPARATION OF ENGLAND.

On what foundation is the assertion based that England is only a first-class naval power? Although never numerous, have not the English soldiers sufficed for all the great eventualities of history? Has not the weight of their arms been felt for centuries past in the balance in which are weighed the destinies of the Continent? Each time that it was necessary to conquer, have they not conquered? I will not awaken irritating recollections. I will not mention the name of a great battle so painful to our national self-love; it will suffice to recall the fact, that recently, England, with a handful of men, has reconquered India. Instead of denying history, it were better to ask by what links the British character is connected with the group of martial nations. The Englishman is not warlike from inclination; he does not love war for war's sake, or maintain an army for the ruinous pleasure of seeing bayonets glitter and banners flaunt. He has an army to defend his territory, his commerce, the immense net-work of his external relations and possessions. Experience has more than once shown him the necessity of placing the pride of riches under the protection of courage. The Englishman has less enthusiasm than coolness. Immovable when attacked, he feels that the responsibility of the labor which has made England an opulent nation rests upon his arms. The military element, therefore, presents in Great Britain peculiar and interesting features. And then, quite recently, besides the regular army, a new independent army has arisen. Yesterday, it existed but as a project; to-day, it fills the towns with the blast of its clarions, passes review in Hyde Park and Holyrood, and covers the plains with the smoke of its skirmishers. I speak of the volunteers, or riflemen. We must investigate the origin of this movement, and the influence it has already exercised on English habits; but before busying ourselves with the army and volunteers, it will be well to study the military schools and arsenals.

REFORMS IN MILITARY EDUCATION AND PROMOTION IN 1856.

The delay and disasters of the operations before Sebastopol aroused the attention of the press and the people to the manner in which officers for the army were trained, appointed, and promoted. The Government was aroused by the emotions of the country, and in 1856, a commission was appointed by Lord Panmure, Secretary of War, to reorganize the education of the officers. That commission visited the different military schools of Great Britain, visited similar institutions in France, Prussia, Austria, and Sardinia, and collected all documents of a nature to enlighten it researches. Its report is a monument of science, and art, and impartiality. The authors of that investigation, Col. Yolland, Col. Mythe, and Mr. Lake, of the Oxford University, pointed out what reform ought to be made in the English system to raise the establishment of military education to the level of the inevitable progress claimed by the present age. They recommended a Council of Military Education, which, placed beyond and above the educating body, should direct the studies of the young men des-

tined for the army. From these various influences—the pressure of public opinion, the commission appointed in 1856 by the Government, and especially the Council of Military Education, arose those happy changes, which we shall endeavor to point out in the military institutions of Great Britain.

ROYAL MILITARY ACADEMY AT WOOLWICH.

Before 1855, the candidates were named by the master-general of ordnance; and although there was an entrance examination, the requisitions were very elementary, and no youth, influentially connected or recommended, was rejected. The results, although the institution furnished some good engineers and artillery officers to the English army, were not satisfactory. Since 1855, the system of appointment and instruction has been re-organized. Appointment on nomination has given place to open competition. A ministerial circular made an appeal to all candidates desirous of entering the academy without distinction of class, or party. Public examinations, thrown open to the youth of England, with independent examinations, succeeded the private examinations within the college walls. The axe was laid at the tree of privilege, and personal merit was substituted in its place.

The entrance examinations take place twice a year, at Chelsea Hospital—the home of disabled soldiers, and the school of orphan soldiers' children—in a large hall hung with the captured trophies and battle flags of different nations. The programme embraces mathematics, simple and practical; history, geography, and English literature; the Greek and Latin classics; the French language and literature; German, chemistry, and physics; mineralogy and geology; geometrical and landscape drawing. To each subject a certain numerical value is assigned. Each candidate is limited to five subjects, including mathematics, which he may select out of the programme, and on his obtaining an aggregate as well as relative number of marks depends his success. The results are made public, and the unsuccessful candidates are allowed another trial to fill succeeding vacancies. Then examinations exercise an indirect but elevating influence upon the schools of the country which send forth the candidates. Competition has put a check upon ignorance and mediocrity, no matter how well backed by social and political influence.

Another reform, not less important than that of competition, or the system of nominations, was that order of the minister of war, lengthening the age for the admission of candidates. That age was fixed between 16 and 20. The inconvenience of submitting young men too soon to military discipline has been recognized with great wisdom by Gen. Portlock.* "The character of adolescents exacts," he says, "a more delicate cultivation than that which must be expected from officers imbued with the command of a military school. In their eyes, no matter how young he is, the pupil is a soldier, and they treat him almost as one. Doubtless they excel in drilling him well; but do they possess the necessary qualities and experience for forming the morals of youth?" Another consequence of the early admissions was the introduction of a sort of confusion and uncertainty in the system of teaching. Now, a distinct line is drawn between the course of studies which precede and which follow admission to the academy. The conclusion was come to that a military academy formed a sort of line of demarcation in life between a good general education which ends, and a professional service which commences. The character, mind, manners of the candidate

* The Inspector of Studies at the Academy, now member of the Military Board of Education.

are supposed to be formed according to the usages of the world; he has reached that age when a man knows himself, and looks out for a career.

It is needless to dwell on the course of instruction, which is now nearly the same in all the great military schools of Europe. There are thirty-five professors, many of them eminent in their respective departments. One leading object, both of instruction and discipline, is to cultivate the habit of self-improvement and self-government. Physical sports are practiced and encouraged, and the cadets frequently challenge the officers of the garrison to a match of cricket.

An examination takes place every six months, in which the progress of each cadet is ascertained and reported. Those who pass through the series in good standing are promoted to a commission; the most distinguished to the engineer corps, and the others to the artillery. The appointment of these young officers gives rise to an interesting ceremony. The Duke of Cambridge, with a numerous staff, visits Woolwich Academy twice a year. All the cadets are present in review in front of the monument. It is pleasing to see how admirably they go through the manœuvres. The duke then enters a hall where a *viva voce* examination takes place on the art of fortification. This over, the cadets form in square, and the duke then advances to the table where the prizes are laid out. These prizes consist of a sword of honor, telescopes, mathematical instruments, and books. The President of the Council of Education reads out the names of the cadets of the first class who are to receive commissions in the engineers and artillery. In conclusion, the Duke of Cambridge addresses some parental words to the young men who are about to leave the academy to enter the army. Such is a brief account of this academical festival, to which the brilliancy of the uniforms, the rank and names of the assistants, the happy emotions on the faces of the young men, impress a character of charm and solemnity.

MILITARY COLLEGE AT ADDISCOMBE.

Addiscombe was formerly the residence of the Earl of Liverpool, but was converted into a school at an expense of $40,000, by the East India Company. Within a few years it has passed into the hands of the Government. One of the first acts of the Secretary of War and Council of Military Education was to inaugurate a system of admission (which was open by patronage of members of the company) by competitive examination, and which has been attended with the happiest results. After passing a year at Addiscombe, the cadets enter according to merit (ascertained by examination) and either enter the engineers, artillery, or line service. The India service will always remain distinct and sought after; that life of adventures, encampments in the jungles, tiger hunts, the attraction of struggles against man and nature, the dazzling figures of a world shining in the east through the fogs of Great Britain, all this responds to one feature of the English character, the love of adventure.

ROYAL COLLEGE OF SANDHURST.

Here are two distinct institutions—the college, which is a preparatory school for infantry and cavalry officers, and the *senior department*, or staff school. The scholars of the last department, who have already gone through the competitive examination, are commissioned officers; they have even served a certain number of years in the army; some of them have gone through the Crimean war and the Indian campaign. In 1859, one of these officers had received eighteen

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or nineteen wounds, which had deprived him of one of his eyes. I was surprised at finding among them candidates for staff appointments who could write and speak French in a manner that would have done honor to a French officer.

The English find it an advantage to admit young officers of talent and energy into the higher branches of the service. To the experience of their profession, their picked soldiers add knowledge already acquired, which a second course of education develops and consolidates. It must, however, be admitted that it requires a certain moral strength to return, after having held a command, to the benches of a school, to follow various studies, and to submit to strict examinations, which exclude all ideas of promotion and favor, fortune or birth.

In an economical point of view, these two institutions, Woolwich and Sandhurst, cover their own expenses without any cost to the State. This fact, which was by no means foreseen, is owing to two measures relatively of recent date—the gradual withdrawal of subsidies formerly granted by Parliament, and the accession of the sons of rich men not belonging to the army; these latter pay a high premium, and thus contribute towards the education of the other cadets, who, being sons of officers, enjoy certain immunities. In England, it is thought equitable that the services of the father should be counted in favor of the son; according to this principle, the debt contracted by the country towards military men is paid to their sons by civilians.

Young men who have not passed through Sandhurst may, nevertheless, be admitted as officers into the line or cavalry, but on the condition of undergoing an examination and *purchasing* their commissions. This purchasing of direct commissions is doubtless detrimental to Sandhurst College. The abolition of the system has often been mooted. The Duke of Cambridge approves of the abolition, as does the Minister of War, and wishes that no officer shall be admitted into the English army except from a military college.

COUNCIL OF MILITARY EDUCATION.

So far we only behold the members of a great system. There is unity in the Council of Military Education, which to a certain extent is the head of instruction. The influence of their council, which consists of eminent men, is felt in the different schools, introduces changes and useful reforms, directs the public examinations—in a word, gives the impulse to the military studies of the United Kingdom. The civil and religious element is represented therein by one of the most learned men of England (the Rev. Henry Moseley, canon.) The other members are generals and colonels belonging to different corps of the army.

Thus it will be seen that England enjoys a system of military education which will bear comparison with that of any other nation in Europe. The chief purposes of this system are a good general instruction up to the age of sixteen or nineteen years, then a short military instruction, then, after some years of service, a final course of studies in the senior department or staff college. It must not, however, be supposed that the present state of things, though happily modified by the recent principle of competition, is the extreme limit of progress. In the name of liberty, I am too anxious that Great Britain should maintain her position in the world, to pay a full compliment to her self-esteem and enslumber her aspirations for reform. She has done much in these latter times; but there is still much to be done, and she is aware of it, to raise the moral power of her officers to the level of modern times, where enlightenment pervades every class of society.

X. THE AMERICAN LYCEUM.

THE first quarter of the present century was marked by a constantly increasing energy in the working of the leaven of educational improvement. Towards the end of that period, and during the succeeding decade, the ferment wrought so actively as to generate a numerous, heterogeneous brood of systems, plans, and institutions—many crude and rudely organized; many that never reached an organization; many that did their work quickly and well; few that have survived in any form till the present time. Of all these, whether under the names of school systems (Infant, Free, Monitorial, Manual labor, Agricultural, etc.,) or of Mechanics' Institutions, Lyceums, Societies for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, Mercantile Associations, Teachers' Seminaries, Teachers' Associations, Literary Institutes, Societies of Education, School Agents' Societies, Library Associations, Book Clubs, Reading Associations, Educational Journals, &c., &c., none created so immediate and general interest, or excited for a time an influence so great or beneficent as

THE AMERICAN LYCEUM.

Although, as a national institution, it did not become organized until 1831, yet, as it was the growth mainly of a single mind, and as the form which it took throughout was in most points indicated in the original draft of the institution as given by Josiah Holbrook* in a communication to the American Journal of Education, in Oct., 1826, its existence should in reality date from the organization of the first Town Lyceum, at Millbury, Mass., under the name of the "Millbury Branch, No. 1, of the American Lyceum." The article mentioned† shows that Mr. Holbrook had already given mature thought to the subject, and had already assisted in the formation of several societies modeled upon a similar plan. But these had not assumed the name of "Lyceum," and it is not certainly known where

* For a memoir of Josiah Holbrook, see Barnard's American Journal of Education, vol. viii., p. 128—256.

† This article is republished in Barnard's American Journal of Education, Vol. viii, page 230.

they were located. The Millbury Branch was established in Nov. 1826, and the example was promptly followed by twelve or fifteen other towns in the vicinity, and these in accordance with Mr. Holbrook's plan, united by delegates in forming the "Worcester County Lyceum." During the same season, through his efforts, actively aided by the Rev. S. J. May, the Lyceum of Windham County, Ct., and several subordinate town societies were organized. To the development of his system, Mr. Holbrook now devoted all his efforts, delivering courses of lectures in different sections of the country; distributing circulars and publishing articles in the journals, explaining the object of the lyceum; making and exchanging collections of geological specimens, and establishing a manufactory of simple philosophical apparatus—all in immediate connection with the extension of the lyceum system.

His plan was, as given in a circular of May, 1828, to establish on a uniform plan, in every town and village, a society for mutual improvement and the improvement of schools, supplied with books, particularly a juvenile library, and with a sufficient philosophical apparatus, geological and mineralogical cabinets, &c., and holding frequent meetings for exercises in the form of lectures, debates, conversation, or experiment upon subjects of practical science and useful knowledge; to have all the societies in a county united by a board of delegates, which should be a board of education for the county, and auxiliary to a general one for the State—the general board to consist of delegates from the several county boards; and to have published under the patronage of the general board, a periodical journal, pamphlets, and tracts, of such a character as to diffuse intelligence and promote general activity throughout the society and the community. He also had in view a connection of the several State boards, acting under legislative authority, hoping thus to secure a general system of popular education that should be marked by uniformity, symmetry, energy, and effect.

In October, 1828, some fifty or sixty branches of the American Lyceum had already been organized. On November 7th, of the same year, a public meeting was held in Boston to consider the claims of the system, of which Daniel Webster was chairman, and G. B. Emerson, secretary. A resolution was passed to the effect that the American Lyceum comprehended the chief objects of a general association for popular improvement, and for the aid and advancement of common education in primary and other schools. Adjourned meetings were held, over which Edward Everett and Charles Lowell presided, and a committee was appointed, consisting

of Messrs. W. Russell, J. Holbrook, G. B. Emerson, Rev. Asa Rand, and Dr. Robbins, who reported in full and favorably upon the subject, and were continued, to report upon the expediency of establishing a lyceum in Boston. This resulted in the formation of the "Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge." The "Boston Lyceum" was, however, organized at a later period, and went into successful operation. In the succeeding year, 1829, branches had been formed in nearly every State in the Union, and a deep and generous interest had arisen upon the subject in every portion of the country, particularly at the South. "In two instances it received the patronage of States, with a view to make it a Board of Education and a means to extend the usefulness of schools."

In February, 1829, a meeting was held in the Representatives' Hall, Boston, consisting of members of the Legislature, and other gentlemen, and presided over by the Hon. Mr. Dennie, of Leicester, to consult "upon the state of education in the commonwealth, and on those associations for promoting it, denominated lyceums." It was resolved "that we regard the formation and success of lyceums as calculated to exert a conspicuous influence upon the interests of popular education, and of literature and science generally," and "that it be recommended to the school-teachers in the several towns to connect themselves with lyceums, and form a distinct class or division for their appropriate pursuits." A committee was appointed to collect information respecting lyceums and report to the next similar meeting. This was held on February 19, 1830, Gov. Lincoln presiding. Rev. Asa Rand at that time reported, in behalf of the State Committee, and county committees were appointed to promote the formation of county lyceums, in order to the speedy establishment of a state society. A central, or State committee was also chosen, consisting of Messrs. A. H. Everett, A. Rand, J. Bowdoin, J. C. Merrill, J. P. Bigelow, E. Bailey, J. Walker, J. H. Ashmun, H. Mann, and W. Lovering, who issued circulars advising the establishment of town and county lyceums, the formation of associations of teachers as branches of lyceums, the introduction of the infant school system into common schools, and the surveys of towns, and the construction of maps. The number of town lyceums in the State, as reported, was seventy-eight, with county lyceums in Worcester, Essex, and Middlesex counties.

This State Committee also issued the call for a meeting, which was held in Boston, in March, 1830, and which resulted in the formation of the "American Institute of Instruction."* The Massa

* See Barnard's American Journal of Education. Vol. II, p. 19.

chusetts State Lyceum was organized February 25, 1831, Hon. A. H. Everett, president.

In New York, a State Convention of the friends of education was held at Utica on January 13th, 1831, with delegates from twenty-two counties; Rev. Pres. Davis, of Hamilton College, presiding. After addresses by Mr. Holbrook and Gov. Yates, the convention resolved itself into a State lyceum, and appointed Mr. Holbrook their agent to visit the several counties of the State and organize county lyceums. Their most important action, however, was the calling a national convention of the friends of education, to meet in New York in the following May.

The Florida Education Society, arranged upon substantially the same plan as a State lyceum, was organized at Tallahasse, June 23, 1831.

CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN LYCEUM.

In accordance with the above-mentioned call of the New York State Lyceum, a convention met in New York, May 4, 1831, for the formation of a national lyceum, with (23) delegates present, as follows:

From the New York State Lyceum—A. J. Yates, J. Griscom, A. Eaton, T. Clowes.

From the State Lyceum of Maine—J. Neal, G. Mellen, J. D. Kinsman.

From the Mass. State Lyceum—J. Holbrook, J. Allen, E. Emerson, C. Dewey.

From Yale College—D. Olmsted, Mr. (F. A. P.) Barnard.

From Washington Co., N. Y.—A. Proudfit, B. Blair, J. W. Proudfit.

From the Lansingburgh Lyceum—H. G. Spafford.

From the Village of Brooklyn, N. Y.—T. Eames, J. L. Van Doren, A. Hayman, G. Freeman, N. Sargent.

From Dickinson College and the Citizens of Carlisle, Pa.—Henry Duffield—and other friends of education.

The Convention thereupon was organized by the election of Alex. Proudfit, D. D., of Salem, N. Y., as president, and John Neal, of Portland, Me., and A. J. Yates, of Chittenango, N. Y., as secretaries. Messrs. Griscom, Holbrook, Yates, Olmsted, and Sargent, as committee of arrangements, reported a constitution, which, after considerable discussion, was adopted as given below. The principal objects intended to be secured were a representation from every section of the Union; a collection of facts relating to the condition and wants of schools; the providing and execution of mea-

ures for supplying their wants, and the introduction of a uniform and improved system of education throughout the country.

CONSTITUTION.

ART. I. The Society shall be called the American Lyceum.

ART. II. The objects of the Lyceum shall be the advancement of education, especially common schools, and the general diffusion of knowledge.

ART. III. The members of the American Lyceum shall consist as follows: — 1st. Of delegates from State, territory, and district lyceums, which are or may be formed, the number of which delegates shall not exceed half the number of members from said State, territory, or district in the national Congress; and where an uneven number of congressional representatives is allowed, the fraction shall be construed in favor of such State, territory, or district; but no State, territory, or district shall be restricted to less than three members. 2d. Of persons appointed by the executive committee of the National Lyceum, from those States, territories, or districts where no general lyceum exists, or where no notice of delegations from those lyceums shall have been received by the executive committee at least three months previous to the time of holding the annual meeting of the American Lyceum, under the same limitation of numbers as in the case of delegates from lyceums. 3d. Of persons invited by said executive committee to attend said annual meeting from various parts of the United States, but who shall not be admitted to the privilege of voting for the election of officers, or any measure connected with the internal policy of the Lyceum.

ART. IV. The officers of the Lyceum shall be a president, five vice-presidents, a recording secretary, as many corresponding secretaries as the Lyceum, at any of its annual meetings, shall deem necessary, and a treasurer, who with five other persons, shall constitute an executive committee to transact any business for the benefit of the Lyceum, to be appointed by ballot at each annual meeting, and to hold their offices until others are appointed in their stead.

ART. V. The Lyceum shall hold an annual meeting in the city of New York on the Friday next succeeding the first Thursday in May.

ART. VI. Three persons shall form a quorum of the Executive Committee, which shall hold its meetings in the city of New York, and shall be empowered to add others to its number.

ART. VII. This constitution may be altered and amended by vote of two-thirds of the delegates present, at any annual meeting.

Upon adoption of the constitution, the following persons were elected officers of the American Lyceum:

President—Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer, Albany, N. Y.
Vice-Presidents—Dr. Alex. Proudfit, Prof. John Griscom, N. Y.; Rob. Vaux, Phila.; E. Everett; Thos. S. Grimke, S. C.
Recording Secretary—Nathan Sargent, N. Y.
Corresponding Secretaries—T. Dwight, Jr., N. Y.; S. B. How, Pres. of Dickinson College, Pa.; Prof. A. J. Yates; J. Holbrook; J. Neal; O. A. Shaw, Richmond, Va.; Rev. B. O. Peers, Lexington, Ky.
Additional Committee—Prof. D. Olmsted; S. W. Seton, N. Y.; W. Forest, N. Y.; D. Russell, Salem, N. Y.; S. P. Staples; G. P. Disosway; Goold Brown, N. Y.; W. B. Kinney; Dr. S. H. Pennington, Newark, N. J.; J. T. Halsey, Elizabethtown, N. J.
Treasurer—J. D. Steele, N. Y.

An interesting discussion followed upon the subject of natural history and the Bible as essential elements in early and general education; consideration was also given to the necessary qualifications of teachers; the nature, operations, results, and prospects of

lyceums, and the procuring of town and county maps; and the following questions were discussed at length:

"To what extent can the natural sciences be advantageously introduced into Common Schools?"

"What are the greatest desiderata for the improvement of Common Schools?"

The society also adopted the following *resolutions:*

"That, in the judgment of this lyceum, a portion of the Scriptures ought to be daily read in each common school, and this exercise is hereby respectfully recommended.

That, in the opinion of this Lyceum, the weekly meetings of teachers in towns, and the semi-annual conventions of teachers in counties under the direction and aid of town and county lyceums, are eminently calculated to improve the qualifications of teachers and advance the interests of schools.

That this Lyceum consider the establishment of seminaries for the education of teachers a most important part of any system of public instruction.

That we regard the school-teachers of our country as a body on whom the future character and stability of our institutions chiefly depend; that they are therefore entitled to our highest consideration; and that, whatever may be their faults or deficiencies, the remedy for both is in the hands of society at large.

That the Executive Committee be directed to adopt such measures as they shall deem expedient to encourage the institution of lyceums in the several States of the Union, where they do not already exist.

That the American Lyceum recommend to town and county lyceums, which are or may be founded, to coöperate in procuring town and county maps, embracing geography, geology, and as much of agriculture and statistics as may be found practicable."

A letter was read from W. C. Woodbridge, presenting a set of the "Annals of Education," and also offering that work as a channel of publication for the notices and proceedings of the Lyceum. It was accordingly

"*Resolved*, That the 'American Annals of Education,' published in Boston, and the 'Magazine of Useful Knowledge,' published in the city of New York, be adopted as the organs of publication for the proceedings of the Lyceum."

The following by-laws were adopted:

BY-LAWS.

I. The Recording Secretary shall provide a suitable place for depositing books, specimens, and other property belonging to the society; a place for the regular meetings; and give early and public notice thereof.

II. Every Corresponding Secretary shall have a particular department assigned to him, and the following are hereby assigned to those appointed:

S. B. How—*On Colleges and their Connection with Common Schools.*

J. Holbrook—*On Books, Apparatus, and Branches of Study.*

B. O. Peers—*On Legislative Provisions for Schools.*

A. J. Yates—*On the Qualifications of Teachers.*

T. Dwight, Jr.—*On Lyceums.*

O. A. Shaw—*On the Natural Sciences.*

J. Neal—*On Methods of Instruction and School Discipline.*

III. The Corresponding Secretaries will make reports in their respective departments, and furnish the Recording Secretary with all documents relating thereto, and belonging to the society.

IV. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee, or any three of their number, to invite persons from different parts of the United States to address the Lyceum, at the annual meeting, on such topics as they may prescribe to them.

V. It shall be the duty of every member of the Executive Committee to forward the general objects of the Lyceum in that section of the country to which he belongs.

VI. Adopts Jefferson's Manual to govern proceedings.

During the following year, the Executive Committee, through its Chairman, John Griscom, issued circulars, which were widely spread through the country, calling attention to the nature and objects of the lyceum; and the following gentlemen, among others, were invited to prepare addresses for the next meeting:—Messrs. Gallaudet, W. R. Johnson, R. Vaux, G. W Gale, Holbrook, Peers, Griscom, Olmsted, E. Everett, Grimke, Keagy, Yates, Dewey, W. Irving, Frelinghuysen, and Miss C. E. Beecher.

In the meantime, through the exertions of Mr. Holbrook, who spent some months of the Fall and winter in visiting several of the Western and Southern States, the Tennessee State Lyceum was organized at Nashville, in October, 1831, Rev. P. Lindsley being president. The Illinois State Lyceum was also organized at Vandalia in December.

Nor less than eight hundred or a thousand town lyceums, and fifty or sixty county societies had been reported to the convention as already in existence at the time of its meeting.

THE SECOND ANNUAL MEETING convened at New York, May 4, 1832, with (55) delegates present from the State Lyceums of Massachusetts, New York, and Illinois; from the Buffalo, Utica, and Marietta Lyceums; from Yale College, N. Y. City University, N. Y. Young Men's Society, N. Y. Mechanics' Society, Newark Mechanics' Association and Lyceum, and the Goodrich Association of Hartford. J. Griscom, 2d Vice-President, was appointed to the chair, and W. B. Kinney, Secretary. There were also present representatives, by invitation, from Spain, Mexico, Venezuela, and the State of Alabama.

The following persons were elected officers of the Society for the ensuing year:

President—J. Griscom, LL.D.
Vice-Presidents—A. Proudfit, D. D.; R. Vaux, E. Everett, T. S. Grimke, P. Lindsley, D. D.
Recording Secretary—W. B. Kinney.
Treasurer—J. D. Steele.
Corresponding Secretaries—T. Dwight, Jr.; J. L. Comstock, M. D.; J. Holbrook, Rev. T. Flint, Cincinnati; Prof. J. M. Sturtevant, Prof. P. Cleveland, Maine; Rev. B. O. Peers, Ky.; T. P. Jones, M. D., D. C.; Prof. A. Eaton, M. D., N. Y.; A. Wood, D. D., Alabama.
Additional Committee—Prof. Olmsted, S. W. Seton, N. Y.; W. Forrest, N. Y.; S. H. Pennington, M. D., Newark; S. P. Staples, N. Y.

The report of the Executive Committee having been accepted, a committee was appointed to devise means for the provision of funds needed to advance the objects of the lyceum. They reported an amendment to the constitution, which was adopted, as follows:

ART. VIII. Any person may become a life director upon paying into the treasury the sum of $100; a life member upon the like payment of $20; an annual member, with the approbation of the executive committee, upon the yearly payment of $3.

A report was read by T. Dwight, Jr., Corresponding Secretary upon Lyceums in the United States, and kindred societies in the republics of South America. Communications were also received, giving the character and operations of the Young Men's Society of New York, (ordered to be published with the proceedings,) the Newark Mechanics' Institute and Lyceum, the Oneida Institute, the Franklin Institution of New Haven, and the Goodrich Association of Hartford—and verbal reports from delegates respecting the Marietta, Cincinnati, Worcester, and other lyceums with which they were connected.

Essays were received and read from the following gentlemen, viz.:—Prof. GRISCOM, *on School Discipline;** T. FRELINGHUYSEN, *on the Importance of making the Constitution and Political Institutions of the United States subjects of Education in Common Schools, Academies, etc.;* Prof. PIZARRO, *on Primary Education in Spain;* Prof. DEWEY, *on the Introduction of the Natural Sciences into Common Schools;* Dr. WEEKS, *on Learning to Read and Write the English Language;* Dr. KEAGY, *on Infant Education;* W. R. JOHNSON, *on the extent to which the Monitorial System is advisable and practicable in Common Schools;* T. S. GRIMKE, *on the appropriate use of the Bible in Common Education.*

Resolutions were passed, recommending a continuance of the correspondence with the institutions of South America and adjoining States; urging the friends of public intelligence and good order to establish, promote, and countenance lyceums in their respective neighborhoods and States; directing the executive committee to make arrangements for a monthly publication as soon as practicable; recommending to patronage the "Annals of Education;" returning thanks to Mr. Seton, Public School visitor, for an opportunity of witnessing an exhibition of pupils from the public schools; accepting with thanks the offer of Mr. Woodbridge, senior editor of the "Annals of Education," for his proposition, in addition to the generous publication of the communications of the lyceum, to permit the lyceum to strike off additional copies for their own use, with no other expense than that of press-work and paper; and finally, on motion of Mr. Woodbridge—

Resolved, 1. That the information presented to the lyceum at the present meeting furnishes abundant evidence of the ability of lyceums and other similar institutions in elevating the intellectual and moral character, in softening the asperities of party feeling, and promoting union and energy in other public objects, and that they may be made to contribute materially to the improvement of common schools.

2. That it be recommended to every town and village of our country to form a social institution of this kind; and that the executive committee be requested to make this a special object of attention during the current year.

* Published.

8. That naturalists and men of experience in science and the arts be respectfully requested to aid the lyceum in naming the subjects of natural history, and in giving instruction, and in the use of instruments and apparatus.

The THIRD ANNUAL MEETING was opened at New York on the 3d of May, 1833, and was organized by the appointment of W. A. Duer, President of Columbia College, as president, and G. P. Disosway, secretary *pro tem.* Delegates and members, seventy-five in number, were present from the State Lyceums of Massachusetts and New Hampshire; from the Lyceums of Boston, Orange, Conn., Ontario County, N. Y., Morris County, N. J., Trenton, N. J., Buffalo, N. Y., and Alton, Ill.; from the Newark Mechanics' Association and Lyceum; Washington College, Hartford; Andover Convention of Teachers; New York Historical Society; New York Athenæum; General Society of the Mechanics and Tradesmen of New York; New York Mercantile Library Association; New York Young Men's Society; Philadelphia Association of Teachers; New York Institute for the Blind; Goodrich Association, Hartford; Franklin Institute, Ithaca, N. Y.; American School Agents' Society; and others as officers of the society, or as invited members.

The following persons were elected as officers for the ensuing year:

President, W. A. DUER, President of Columbia College; *Vice-Presidents*, those of the previous year continued in office; *Recording Secretary*, W. B. KINNEY; *Treasurer*, W. FORREST, N. Y.; *Corresponding Secretaries*, Prof. J. GRISCOM, Providence, R. I.; and Pres. CUSHING, Hampden Sidney College, Va., in addition to those of the last year; *Additional Committee*, Prof. OLMSTED; J. D. STEELE, N. Y.; S. H. PENNINGTON, M. D., Newark, N. J.; S. P. STAPLES, N. Y.; Prof. J. DURBIN, N. Y.; A. P. HALSEY, N. Y.; JAMES DONALDSON, N. Y.; Prof. MCVICKER, Columbia College; Prof. J. RENWICK, N. Y.; W. B. LAWRENCE, N. Y.; Prof. VETHAKE, New York University; J. D. RUSS, M. D., New York.

The Executive Committee, through their Secretary, reported that during the year they had been deprived of the services of the President and other members by their resignations; that they had issued circulars and letters to various local lyceums and friends of learning, inviting essays upon subjects of general importance; and that they had commenced measures for the collection of a cabinet of natural history.

The Corresponding Secretary on Lyceums reported the distribution of from 100 to 400 of the several numbers of the published proceedings of the last meeting, and generally upon the progress of the lyceum system of popular education in the United States and Southern Republics.

Reports were also received from delegates respecting lyceums and

education in New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Kentucky, and Virginia; and from G. W. Light in relation to the Boston Lyceum, and the Boston Young Men's Society, which last were published in the proceedings of the lyceum.

The formation of *Cabinets of Natural History* was made the subject of discussion, and it was

Resolved, That this Lyceum recommend to all the lyceums and schools in the country to procure cabinets of natural history for themselves, and to coöperate in furnishing a national cabinet in the city of New York, and that the Executive Committee be requested to procure a place of deposit for the cabinet, and otherwise to aid the enterprise.

The subject of *Manual Labor Schools* was also introduced, and after a discussion of considerable length, was referred to a committee consisting of Mr. Woodbridge and others, who reported the following resolutions:

1. That no system of education is complete which does not provide for the vigor of the body, as well as the cultivation of the mind and the purity of the heart.

2. That the combination of manual labor with study is not only important as the means of promoting health, but that it is also calculated to invigorate the mind for intellectual labor, and to aid in regulating the feelings and restraining the passions of youth, which are so often excited by a sedentary life.

3. That the acquisition of some mechanical employment in early life is desirable to every individual, as a means of relaxation and health, as a resource in case of difficulty, and especially as a means of rendering labor respectable in the eyes of all, and of promoting mutual regard and sympathy between the different portions of society in a republican government.

4. That in view of these facts, the Lyceum earnestly recommend to parents, to secure the benefits of manual labor to their children from the earliest period practicable, as a part of domestic education.

5. That the introduction of manual labor in those institutions for education in which children are separated from their parents, would be of essential benefit to the wealthy in promoting health and improvement; and to the indigent in enabling them to procure an education at an expense greatly reduced; and that the Lyceum regard the establishment of such schools as an important and desirable branch of a system of national education for our country.

Resolutions were also adopted, recommending to county and town lyceums, the formation of State lyceums in those States where none already existed; requesting President Duer to draw up and publish the outlines of the constitutional jurisprudence of the United States as a text-book for teachers and for scholars; amending the constitution so as to extend the number of the additional members of the executive committee to twenty; recommending to all lyceums and schools regular contributions, either in money or effort, in favor of some benevolent object; presenting the thanks of the Lyceum to Mr. Woodbridge for his attention and liberality in regard to the publication of the proceedings of the last meeting, under the embarrassing circumstances produced by the failure of the plan then pro-

posed for the collection of funds, and requesting him to continue to publish the proceedings in the "Annals." Recommending to the attention and support of lyceums and schools the "Annals of Education," and also the "Family Lyceum," published by Mr. Holbrook. Recommending the labors of J. J. Audubon, and his work on ornithology to all friends of useful knowledge. *Special Committees* were also appointed, to report a uniform plan for meteorological observations, to be recommended to lyceums and schools in all parts of the country; to inquire whether the study of the Greek language is commenced at a proper age, and pursued on the best plan; to visit the new primary schools in New York city and report; for foreign correspondence, to collect information in relation to education.

Essays and communications were read or received, as follows:—From G. P. Macculloch, *on the General Principles of Instruction*;* Dr. Comstock, *on Geology*; E. James, M. D., *on the Chippewa Language*;* Dr. J. D. Russ, *respecting Apparatus and Methods for the Instruction of the Blind*; W. C. Woodbridge, *on Vocal Music as a Branch of Common Education*;* from Juan Rodriquez, of Mexico, *on the state of Education in Mexico*; W. A. Alcott, *on the study of Physiology as a branch of General Education.*

After the reading of the last essay, the following resolutions were, on motion of Mr. Woodbridge, adopted:

"That the study of Physiology ought to form a part of the course of education wherever it is practicable.

That a premium of $300 be offered for the best text book on Physiology for the use of schools, presented before March 1, 1834, to be published under direction of the Lyceum.

That the Executive Committee select four persons, one from each of the professions of medicine, law, theology, and education, to examine and decide on the works presented."

The Fourth Annual Meeting opened in New York, May 2, 1834, President Duer in the chair, and W. B. Kinney, Secretary. There were present (64) delegates and members from the Massachusetts and New Jersey State Lyceums; Essex county Lyceum, N. J.; the Lyceums of Brooklyn, N. Y., Nottingham, N. J., Orange, N. J., Washington city, D. C.; the Naval and Hamilton Lyceums of Brooklyn; from Yale College, Wesleyan University, University of Geórgia, Newark Mechanics' Association and Lyceum, New York Lyceum of Natural History, Albany Young Men's Society, New York Literary and Philosophical Society, and others.

The officers of the last year were reëlected, with the substitution of Messrs. Judge Clayton, of Georgia, W. C. Woodbridge, and W. B. Calhoun, Springfield, Mass., for Messrs. Flint, Cleaveland, and Eaton, as Corresponding Secretaries; and of Messrs. Dr. Torrey, Dr. L. D. Gale, Dr. J. Van Rensellaer, Rev. D. I. Carroll, of Brook-

* Published.

lyn, and R. G. Rankin, for Messrs. Steele, Staples, Durbin, McVickar, and Lawrence, upon the Executive Committee.

Reports on lyceums and schools were presented by several gentlemen, Mr. Calhoun making a detailed statement respecting the lyceums, schools, and academies of Massachusetts; Dr. Weeks, a full account of the formation of the New Jersey State Lyceum on April 3, 1834; and Judge Clayton, an account of the state of education, and of thirteen new lyceums in Georgia.

Discussions were held upon the following questions:

1. Is the establishment of a central school for teachers desirable in the United States, and on what plan should it be founded?
2. Is the monitorial system in any form or degree appropriate to our common schools?

In the discussion of the latter question, S. W. Seton, agent of the trustees of the New York Common Schools, communicated at length his views upon the subject of the monitorial system.

Essays and communications were read as follows:—From Mrs. L. H. Sigourney, *on raising the standard of Female Education*;* Lorenzo de Zavala, Minister Plenipotentiary from Mexico to France, *on Education*;* H. R. Schoolcraft, *on the means for promoting Civilization and Education among the Western Indians*;* Juan Rodriquez, member of the Mexican Congress, *on Education in Mexico*;* Augustus Yakonbusky, a young Polish exile, *on Education and Literature in Poland*; Justo Velor, Rector of Havana College, *on the higher branches of Education in Cuba*; Joaquin Mosquera, Vice-President of New Granada, *upon the progress of Education in that republic.*

Resolutions were passed, altering the plan authorized at the last meeting, relating to a text-book upon Physiology, and extending the time allowed therefor; returning thanks to President Duer for his book upon constitutional jurisprudence, published at the expense of the society; returning thanks to Mr. Woodbridge for his attention and liberality in the publication of the proceedings of the last meeting, and requesting him to continue to publish the proceedings in the "Annals;" requesting all lyceums to unite as branches with this society, and be represented in its annual meetings; and, in failure thereof, to make report of their condition, in order that the objects of the society and its associate societies may be promoted and their benefits more generally diffused; requesting the Executive Committee to organize classes, or departments, for the promotion of moral, political, and physical science; that each class, or department, be empowered to call to its aid such scientific gentlemen as they may think proper; and that a similar department of literature and the arts be organized under the same regulations.

Committees were appointed to conduct a correspondence with persons whose attention has been particularly directed to the business

* Published.

of instruction, to collect information, and otherwise to promote the establishment of a central seminary for the education of common school teachers; to collect information on the best plan for conducting and rendering interesting and attractive the proceedings of local lyceums; to produce an essay upon the monitorial system as appropriate to common schools; to propose some plan for raising funds for defraying necessary expenses.

In accordance with the report of this committee, Messrs. Carroll, Gale, and Renwick were appointed a committee to prepare an address to the public, and to make arrangements for a public meeting, in order that the nature, operations, and objects of the Lyceum might be brought prominently forward before the public, and that their personal application be made as extensively as possible for subscriptions or contributions to the funds of the society.

THE FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING was held in New York, May 8, 1835, President Duer in the chair, and R. G. Rankin, Secretary *pro tem.* At the election of officers for the ensuing year, all the surviving officers were reëlected. The vacancy caused by the death of T. S. Grimke was filled by the appointment of P. W. Radcliffe, of Brooklyn.

Fifty delegates and members were present from the following lyceums and societies:—The Massachusetts Lyceum, New York city Lyceum, United States Naval Lyceum, Brooklyn Lyceum, New Bedford Lyceum, Hempstead Lyceum, Yale College, Hamilton Library Association of Brooklyn, and the Newark Young Men's Society; several invited members were also present.

The report of the Corresponding Secretary on lyceums, gave full and complete information respecting the operations and designs of the Society, and was published, together with extracts from the foreign correspondence of the Lyceum. Reports were made by delegates present, or by letter, respecting various lyceums in the States of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey. Rev. Charles Stewart read an interesting report upon the United States Naval Lyceum, at Brooklyn, which was published. Reports were also received from the committees appointed at the last meeting to inquire respecting "the study of the Greek Language," and "the Monitorial System." Letters were read from H. R. Schoolcraft, P. S. Duponceau, J. Pickering, President Fisk, President Wayland, A. H. Everett, Miss C. E. Beecher, Charles Frazer, and J. C. Neagle.

Essays and communications were received as follows,—From Miss C. E. Beecher, *on the Education of Female Teachers;** Dr. J. D. Russ, *on Books and Apparatus for the Blind;* Constantine Oscanean, *on the History and Condition of Education in Armenia;** E. Loomis, Rushville, N. Y., *on the Ojipue Spelling*

* Published.

Book;"* W. S. Cooley, *on the Invention of the Cherokee Alphabet*;* T. Dwight Jr., *on the Sereculehs, in Nigritia, with a Vocabulary*;* A Member of the Executive Committee, *on a newly discovered group of Islands in the Pacific, with a Vocabulary of the Uniapa Language*; C. Frazer, Charleston, S. C., *on the Condition and Prospects of Painting in the United States*;* W. Dunlap, N. Y., *on the Influence of the Arts of Design, and the true modes of encouraging them*;* T. Cole, N. Y., *on American Scenery*.*

Resolutions were adopted, that the subject of female education deserves more attention than it has yet received; that the establishment and liberal endowment of female seminaries of a high order, especially for the education of female teachers, is highly deserving of the benefactions of the intelligent and wealthy of the community, as well as of legislative patronage, and recommending the extended circulation of Miss Beecher's essay on the education of female teachers; requesting the executive committee to select such of the communications made to the Society, as they may deem generally interesting and useful, and to publish the same under the title of "Transactions of the American Lyceum;" returning thanks to W. C. Woodbridge for the donation of two hundred copies of his review of the "Address of the Literary and Philosophical Society of South Carolina, to the people of that State, on Lyceums;" instructing the Executive Committee to promote the formation of ward or district lyceums in the city of New York, so far as their aid may be desired; affirming that lyceums afford a cheap and agreeable means of intellectual and moral improvement, promoting the development of latent talent, and tending to cultivate taste and the useful arts, and that the investment of money for their establishment has proved of solid advantage to the wealth, as well as the habits and enjoyments of communities; expressing satisfaction at the reported increase of lyceums in Southern States, inviting them to coöperate with each other and this Society for the promotion of knowledge, and authorizing the Executive Committee to call a special meeting of the American Lyceum at such time as may seem most convenient to the friends of lyceums at the South; approving of the operations of the "American Institute of Instruction," and appointing a committee to attend the next annual meeting of that Society; expressing sympathy with the efforts making for the advancement of education in New Granada; instructing the Executive Committee to enter into a correspondence concerning the general interests of education among the Armenians; requesting Mr. D. Prentice, of Utica, to prepare an essay on the measures necessary to promote uniformity in meteorological observations in the United States; instructing the Executive Committee to call a convention of teachers

* Published.

in this city, for such specified objects and at such time as they may determine, provided it seem to them advisable.

Committees were appointed to ascertain how education in New Granada might be best promoted by the Lyceum, to solicit funds for that object, and use them under direction of the Executive Committee; to correspond with the friends of lyceums in the South, and to propose a meeting of the American Lyceum this year, at such time as may be approved.

On August 18, 1835, an education convention met at West Chester, Penn., in accordance with a call make by Dr. Keagy, in the name of the Teachers' Lyceum of Philadelphia. It continued in session two days, organized a State Lyceum, electing Jas. Roberts, of Montgomery county, President, and held discussions upon various questions of interest. In an address delivered by Mr. Holbrook before the Convention, he stated that there had then been formed fifteen or sixteen State lyceums, over one hundred county lyceums, and about three thousand village lyceums, besides many connected with academies and schools.*

The SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING was opened in New York, May 6, 1836, with W. A. Duer, President, and T. Dwight, Jr., Secretary *pro tem.* There were present (81) delegates and members from the Pennsylvania State Lyceum, the Lyceums of New York city, Brooklyn, and Dorchester, Mass.; the Beriah Sacred Lyceum, N. Y.; Philadelphia Teachers' Lyceum; Juvenile Lyceums of the New York Public Schools; the Hamilton Literary Association of Brooklyn; New York Mercantile Library Association; Newark Young Men's Society; Young Men's Association for Mutual Improvement, of Albany; Fall River Atheneum, R. I.; New York Public School Teachers' Association; New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb; New York Handel and Haydn Society, and invited members. The officers of the preceding year were reëlected, the lists of corresponding secretaries and members of the Executive Committee only being in a few instances altered.

The report of T. Dwight, Jr., Corresponding Secretary, described

* This movement was followed by the establishment of many subordinate lyceums in the State, and by zealous exertions, in both lyceums and schools, for the wider diffusion of knowledge, especially by the collection and exchange of specimens of the productions of nature and of art. During this time, Mr. Holbrook, who had been actively interested in these movements in Pennsylvania, issued a pamphlet giving the plan and object of a *Universal Lyceum*, with the names of the proposed officers. The person designated as president was Henry Brougham; while the 52 vice-presidents, and 139 secretaries were men of all countries in the world, distinguished for science or philanthropy. The "actuary" of this Lyceum was Mr. Holbrook himself. The particular object intended was "to secure the assistance of such men in aid of the efforts of young inquirers after knowledge, and of inexperienced laborers for the advancement of science, the elevation of morals, and the redemption of the human family.

the operations of the Society during the year as having been more various and extensive than in any preceding twelvemonth, and the correspondence as increasing, both in the labor required, and in its results, and referred to the poverty of the Society as greatly to be regretted. This report was published, and gives much information respecting educational movements in connection with the lyceum system.

Written or verbal reports, official and otherwise, were received respecting lyceums and some other kindred institutions in Massachusetts, New York, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Illinois. A report was communicated by the United States Naval Lyceum, and published in the "Transactions."

Discussions were held upon the subjects of "Mutual Instruction in Common Schools," and "School Funds." Abstracts of the first discussion were thought worthy of publication, and the latter subject was finally referred to a committee for their investigation, to report at the next meeting.

Addresses and essays were given or communicated as follows:—By Dr. S. G. Howe, *on the Methods and Means of Instructing the Blind*; J. W. Garnett, of Va., *on the Influence of Literary Institutions on the Interests of the Union*; N. Dodge, of Philadelphia, *on Emulation in Schools, and proper motives to Study*; F. A. Packard, *on the Means of Procuring Popular Coöperation in favor of Common Education*; H. Bokum, Cambridge, Mass., *on the Moral and Intellectual Condition of the German Population in the United States*; W. A. Alcott, *on Missionaries of Education*; Harvey Peet, *on the Education of the Blind*; Mr. Caballero, *on Education in New Granada.*

Resolutions were adopted, that the payment of one dollar should enable any one to receive all the regular publications of the Society for the year; and the payment of three dollars should confer the additional right of membership, if approved by the Executive Committee; requesting of the members information and yearly correspondence respecting the subordinate lyceums throughout the country; recommending the publication of a library of books for the blind; recommending the introduction of elementary instruction in natural history into common schools; recommending the plan proposed by the Pennsylvania Lyceum for the occasional occupation of the young in collecting objects of natural history for exchange, exercises in drawing, and correspondence; directing the Executive Committee to omit in the publication of addresses, &c., all paragraphs that may contain sectarian or political allusions of any kind, should any such unfortunately appear; appointing delegates to the Western Institute and College of Teachers; amending Art. V. of the Constitution, so as to read, "The Lyceum shall hold an annual meeting at such time and place as the preceding annual meeting

shall have decided; that the next annual meeting be held at Philadelphia, on the first Tuesday in May, 1837.

A series of resolutions was moved by T. Dwight, Jr., and adopted, to the effect that measures for the rapid and universal improvement of common schools ought immediately to be taken; that the best plans, means, and methods of instruction ought to be introduced without delay, at any expense; that wise laws in favor of education are very important; but that popular coöperation is of paramount importance, and may better be in advance of laws than behind them, and that this may be greatly promoted by the intelligent exertions of devoted men; that friends of education should act without delay in visiting and improving common schools, addressing public assemblies, forming lyceums, or by other means excite and direct a general cooperation in its favor; that such be requested to communicate their designs, and subsequently their proceedings and results, or their contributions to the American Lyceum; and that the Lyceum, so far as its funds will allow, will gratuitously send their proceedings monthly to every county in the Union.

A *committee* was appointed to report on the best mode of enlarging the operations of the Lyceum, and of interesting the public mind in its great object.

Mr. Holbrook gave notice that a quantity of minerals, sent by the Pennsylvania Lyceum, was in the city, and that provision had been made by the Lyceum for the supply of all the counties in the Union with cabinets of minerals by exchange.

The SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING met at Philadelphia, on May 5, 1837, under the presidency of Rev. G. W. Ridgley, of Penn. The number of delegates from lyceums present was about sixty-five, besides several individual members. The former officers were re-elected, with few exceptions. The Corresponding Secretary, T. Dwight, Jr., presented his report, which was ordered published. Reports were also received from the several lyceums represented, from the Cabinet of Natural Science of the University of Pennsylvania, and from the Hartford Natural History Society.

Discussions were held upon the following questions:—"What principle should be adopted by a State in appropriating its share of the surplus revenue for the support of education?" "What motives should be addressed in the Education of Youth?" "Ought the Monitorial System of Instruction to be introduced into Common Schools?" "What is the best means of securing the influence and efforts of Females in Intellectual and Moral Improvement?"

Lectures were delivered as follows:—J. P. Espy, *on Meteorology;* S. Wood, of London, *on the Interrogative Method of Instruction;* J. Orville Taylor, *on the State of Education in New York;* Dr. A. Comstock, *on Elocution, and the cure of Stammering; on the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.*

A communication was also received from G. R. Gliddon, on the recent formation of an Egyptian Society.

Resolutions were passed, requesting all lyceums to keep a table of meteorological observations, and report the same to J. P. Espy, of Philadelphia; expressing the opinion that no institution has ever been established so well calculated to allay party excitements and unite all classes in the cause of education, and recommending to the friends of education to use their influence in the establishment of lyceums throughout the world.

A *committee* was appointed, with power to employ agents for the purpose of collecting and diffusing information respecting lyceums and the general subject of education, to carry out the objects and designs of the Society, and to solicit funds in its behalf.

A committee was also appointed to bring before Congress a memorial upon the subject of meteorology, asking an appropriation that should secure simultaneous observations throughout the country, and the services of an able meteorologist in collecting the observations and deducing general laws and facts therefrom.

The EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING was convened at Hartford, May 15, 1838, Rev. T. H. Gallaudett in the chair, and was organized by the appointment of Gen. Nat. Terry, President, and T. Dwight, Jr., Secretary.

Reports were received from the State Lyceums of Pennsylvania and Connecticut (which had been formed during the session of the Lyceum) from the lyceum of Bucks county, Penn., and from twenty-one other lyceums, institutes, and kindred societies. The Annual Report of the Corresponding Secretary was read, and afterwards published.

Essays and communications were read as follows:—L. G. Pray, of Boston, *on the Primary Schools of Boston;* Dr. W. A. Alcott, *on Religious Instruction in Common Schools; on the Character and Objects of the American Physiological Society;* F. A. Packard, *on the Importance of uniting Moral and Religious Instruction with the Cultivation of the Intellect;* J. A. Hamersley, of Hartford, *on an International Copyright Law;* W. C. Woodbridge, *on the Education of the Eye; and on two remarkable Sicilian Arithmeticians.*

After discussion upon the question, "Can the system of Monitorial Instruction be adopted with advantage in Common Schools?" It was decided in the negative, but afterwards referred to the next session.

A committee was appointed to report upon the subject of "The Embellishment and Improvement of Towns." Their report, by the

Chairman, W. A. Alcott, was published and printed in the Journal of Education for August, 1838.

Resolutions were adopted, after general discussion, as follows: In approval of the proposition of the American Sunday School Union to publish a selection of their books as a school library; that the use of the Bible in our popular systems of education, as a text-book of moral and religious instruction, is regarded as indispensable; recommending the formation of associations of school teachers throughout the country, holding regular meetings for mutual instruction relative to the government, education, and elevation of their respective schools; requesting the lyceums and societies there represented to contribute funds in order to enable the Society to publish its proceedings.

A resolution respecting the appointment of agents, as proposed at the last meeting, was referred to the next annual meeting of the Lyceum.

The following officers were duly elected for the ensuing year:

President—W. A. Duer, N. Y.
Vice-Presidents—G. W. Ridgley, Penn.; E. Everett; P. W. Radcliff, N. Y.; J. Griscom; Nat. Terry, Ct.; T. Frelinghuysen, N. J.
Recording Secretary—R. G. Rankin, N. Y.
Treasurer—A. Halsey, N. Y.
Corresponding Secretaries—T. Dwight, Jr.; F. A. Packard; J. L. Comstock; J. P. Brace, Hartford; W. A. Clayton, Geo.; J. M. Sturtevant, Ill.; W. C. Woodbridge; A. Woods, Alabama; J. M. Garnett, Va.; C. Goddard, Ohio; J. M. Alexander, N. J.; Prof. A. W. Smith, Conn.

The NINTH ANNUAL MEETING was held in the city of New York on the 3d, 4th, and 6th of May, 1839.

The subject of a NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION had already excited some attention, and had been urged in various quarters. Prof. Charles Brooks, of the New York University, previously of Hingham, Mass., who had long been one of the most zealous promoters of education in New England, had taken occasion of the delivery of a course of lectures at Philadelphia upon education, to urge the gathering of such a convention. In accordance with this suggestion, the following notice appeared in the Philadelphia and New York papers of March 18, 1839:

> The friends of elementary education, anxious that adequate instruction should be extended to every child in our republic, have proposed that a Convention be held in Philadelphia in November next, just before the meeting of Congress, for the purpose of discussing the following questions. The plan proposed by Prof. Brooks is, to invite the Governors or Legislatures of the several States to invite the prominent friends of education to come as delegates. No power whatever is to be vested in the Convention. It is merely for friendly consultation and debate. All sects in religion, and all parties in politics have equal rights and opportunities. Sectarian politics and sectarian religion to be emphatically and wholly excluded.

Among the objects and topics contemplated are the following:—To gather educational statistics; to ascertain what has been accomplished in different parts of the country; to discuss the systems now in operation in Europe, especially those in Holland, Germany, Prussia, France, and England, and see how far they may be applied in the United States; to inquire into the value of Normal Schools; to ascertain how and where may be procured the best school apparatus, the best reading books, the best school libraries, the best models of school-houses, &c., &c.

The Convention might petition Congress to insert a new item in taking the next census, viz:—to see how many children there are in each State, between the ages of seven and sixteen, who have received no elementary instruction.

These and their kindred topics would elicit a mass of useful information which might be relied on as a basis for introducing legislation, leaving to each State the opportunity of adopting or rejecting whatever it pleases.

The same subject was now made the principal topic of discussion before the American Lyceum, and upon motion of Mr. Brooks, it was unanimously determined to call a National Convention, and a committee of five from different States were appointed to convene the assembly at Philadelphia in the last week of the following November. Mr. Brooks, as member of the committee and original mover of the call, drew up the following circular invitation, which was addressed to the Governor and the members of the Legislature of each State:

CIRCULAR.

Fellow Citizens:—At the ninth annual meeting of the American Lyceum, held in the city of New York on the 3d, 4th, and 6th of May, 1839, the following resolutions, proposed by Professor Brooks, of Massachusetts, were maturely considered and unanimously adopted, viz:

Resolved, That it is expedient to hold a National Convention for one week in the "Hall of Independence," at Philadelphia, beginning on the 22d of November next, at 10 o'clock, A. M., for the purpose of discussing the various topics connected with elementary education in the United States.

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed to request the Governor, (and if in session, the Legislature,) of each State in the Union, to invite the friends of education in their State to attend the Convention.

The undersigned, having been appointed to form this committee, do now, in obedience to their instructions, respectfully address you on this paramount subject.

The American Lyceum in taking measures to carry into effect the above resolutions, expresses its deep anxiety for the proper physical, intellectual, and moral culture of every child in the United States. It is ascertained that as many as nineteen out of twenty children, who receive instruction, receive it at the common schools. These schools, therefore, must be with us the hope of civilization, liberty, and virtue. To elevate them so as to meet the wants of our republic is the high and single aim of the Convention. Parties in politics and sects in religion will not for a moment be recognized in any form. No power will be vested in the assembly. It will be, we trust, a company of philanthropists, patriots, and Christians coming together in the spirit of an expansive benevolence, to consult for the higher good of the rising generation, and whose deliberations and results, when published to the country, will bring the great cause of education simultaneously before the several States in a form for enlightened, definite, and successful action. As subservient to this humane and patriotic object, we would suggest a few among the many topics which will demand the consideration of the meeting, viz.:

How many children are there in each State who, according to the laws of that State, should be under instruction? How many of this number are found in the schools? What is the condition of the common schools in each State?

What is the organization of the school system? What branches of knowledge should be taught in our common schools? What should be the character of our common school books? How may school apparatus and school libraries be made most useful? In what branches should instruction be given orally, and in what degree? What should be the qualifications of teachers? Are normal schools, or seminaries for the preparation of teachers, desirable? On what plan should they be established? Is a central normal school for the Union desirable? Should it be under the direction of Congress or a society of citizens? What connection should the common schools have with academies, colleges, and universities? What models for school-houses are best? Will a Board of Education, established by each State, afford the best supervision, and secure the highest improvement of the schools? How can itinerant teachers and lecturers best supply destitute places? Is a national system of instruction desirable? How should a school fund be applied? In what part of each State has the greatest progress been made in elementary education? How may school statistics, which must be the basis of legislation, be most easily collected? What features of the system now in operation in Holland, Germany, Prussia, France, and Great Britain may be most usefully adopted in this country?

FELLOW CITIZENS:—The discussion of these and kindred topics will probably elicit a mass of information, the importance of which can not be easily overstated We would therefore urge those, who shall attend the Convention, to come prepared for making known the valuable facts they can gather. Believing that all the talent of a country should be so tempted forth, by judicious culture, as to bring it into profitable and harmonious action; that it is important to the public good as well as to private happiness that we should receive the requisite supply of useful information; and that each faculty which the Creator has implanted in childhood should be developed in its natural order, proper time, and due proportion; we invite you to secure the attendance of delegates from your State, prepared to promote the first duty of your republic—*the education of our youth*. Believing that our country must look to intelligence as its defense and to virtue as its life-blood; and that the plan now proposed, originating in the most enlightened views of freedom and humanity, will be the first in a series of means for securing the greatest good to future generations, not only among us, but to our sister republics, the Lyceum desires to bring into a focus all the light which can be collected in our land. Some of the most distinguished gentlemen in the several States have promised to be present; and we would suggest the expediency of inviting the members of Congress (who will be on their way to Washington about the time of meeting) to join the Convention.

With the most heartfelt good wishes for the success of every effort for the benefit of the young, both in your State and throughout the Union, we are

Your friends and fellow citizens,

THEODORE FRELINGHUYSEN, of New Jersey.
CHARLES BROOKS, of Massachusetts.
JOHN GRISCOM, of Pennsylvania.
HENRY R. SCHOOLCRAFT, of Michigan.
NEW YORK, June, 1839. THEODORE DWIGHT, JR., of New York.

P. S. We respectfully invite each editor of a newspaper in the United States to give his patrons the opportunity of reading the above circular, and to add this postscript as recording our sincerest thanks for his friendly coöperation.

NATIONAL CONVENTION.

The Convention met on Nov. 22, 1839, at the session room of the Second Presbyterian Church in Philadelphia. There were present fifty-five delegates from the States of New York, Maryland, Delaware, and North Carolina, the District of Columbia, the city of Baltimore, and Board of Commissioners of Public Schools of Baltimore, the Select Council and Common Council of Philadelphia, the Directors of the Philadelphia Public Schools, the Pennsylvania Ly-

ceum, and the Philadelphia Lyceum. Prof. John Griscom, of New York, was called to the chair, and Z. C. Lee, of Baltimore, appointed Secretary, and a committee was appointed to prepare business and nominate officers.

Upon report of the committee, the following gentlemen were elected officers of this Convention :

President—Prof. John Griscom.
Vice-Presidents—W. C. Johnson, of Maryland; J. R. Chandler, of Philadelphia; Willard Hall, of Delaware; Samuel Webb, of Philadelphia.
Secretary—Z. C. Lee, of Baltimore.
Assistant Secretary—Rev. G. Jenkins, of Philadelphia.

The Hon. W. C. Johnson, Chairman of the committee on business, then submitted the following resolutions, which after some debate and amendments, in which Messrs. E. Stanley, of North Carolina, W. C. Johnson, J. Jenkins, Rev. Dr. Geiteau, of Baltimore, J. R. Chandler, J. King, of Baltimore, Z. C. Lee, C. Gilman, of Baltimore, Rev. R. R. Gurley, of Washington, Dr. J. E. Snodgrass and R. M. Laughlin, of Baltimore, W. Wharton and J. J. Barclay, of Philadelphia; Dr. S. Collins and J. P. Kennedy, of Baltimore; Dr. Bache, of Girard College, S. Webb, of Philadelphia, and others participated, were adopted in the following form :

Whereas, the cause of popular education is one which should command the energy and zeal of every lover of his country, and which calls for the united action of the citizens of this republic, therefore

Resolved, That the National Committee of the friends of education, now in session in Philadelphia, desire that an earnest appeal be made in their behalf to the people of the United States in relation to this interesting cause, embodying the precepts contained in the farewell address of the immortal Washington, and the spirit of his compatriots of the Revolution.

Resolved, That a memorial from this Convention to the Congress of the United States be prepared, asking an early appropriation of the Smithsonian legacy to the purposes of education, for which it was designed by the generous philanthropist whose name it bears.

Resolved, That a memorial prepared from this Convention to the Congress of the United States, urging upon that body the propriety of appropriating all, or a part of the proceeds of the sales of public lands, for the purposes of education.

Resolved, That a memorial be presented in behalf of this Convention to the Legislatures of the several States of the Union, urging the establishment of a system of general education, whereby free and common schools may be made accessible to all, and that knowledge be secured to the people which is the bulwark of social and political happiness and freedom.

And whereas, it is most important to rally the friends of education throughout our widely extended country, therefore it is further

Resolved, That the Governors of the several States be requested by this Convention to direct in their messages the attention of the Legislatures to the state of popular education in their respective States; and also that they officially promote immediate inquiry how the same can be improved.

Resolved, That the National Convention, now in session in Philadelphia, recommend to the friends of education in the several States of the Union, the holding of State Conventions, or the formation of State Educational Societies, for the promotion of the cause of education by such means as may seem to them most suitable.

Resolved, That a general Convention of the friends of education, to consist of

delegates from State Conventions, lyceums, public bodies connected with institutions for education, or from regularly constituted public meetings of the friends of the cause, be held in Washington on the first Wednesday of May next.

Resolved, That the officers of this Convention, together with a special committee of nine members to be appointed by the officers, be requested to make all necessary arrangements for securing the attendance of delegates from the various sections of the United States, at the *General National Convention* to be held at the city of Washington in May next.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend to the several State Conventions to appoint delegates to the National Convention to be held in Washington, and a standing committee to correspond with the committee of the National Convention.

Resolved, That the President and Vice-Presidents of this Convention be authorized to appoint the requisite number of committees (to consist of five members each) to prepare the address and memorials contemplated in the preceding resolutions.

Committees were appointed as follows:

To propose an appeal to the people; Messrs. Z. C. Lee, R. R. Gurley, C. C. Burleigh, M. J. Lewis, Dr. Ballinger.

To memorialize Congress respecting the Smithsonian legacy; Messrs. J. R. Chandler, J. J. Barclay, G. M. Wharton, W. Wharton, and G. M. Justice.

To memorialize Congress respecting the appropriation of the proceeds of the sales of the public lands; Messrs. J. P. Kennedy, C. Gilman, Rev. Dr. Geiteau, Rev. E. W. Gilbert, and G. Emler, Jr.

To memorialize the Legislatures of the several States; Messrs. Dr. A. D. Bache, Rev. Dr. Jenkins, Prof. E. C. Wines, Prof. J. Griscom, and W. S. Peet.

Special Committee of Arrangements for a general National Convention; Messrs. Judge Hall, T. Earle, E. W. Gilbert, Prof. J. Bryan, W. Biddle, Dr. O. H. Cosbell, Dr. G. H. Burgin, C. Gilpin, J. Weirgand, and D. Parrish.

After votes of thanks to the city authorities, citizens, and the officers of the meeting, the Convention adjourned *sine die*.

Thus ended, it is believed, as far as all public action was concerned, the operations of the "American Lyceum." Under the discouragements and difficulties attending an imperfect organization, want of sympathy and hearty coöperation, want of authority, and want of funds, it had done what it could. The defects of the system of which it was a part, and which it advocated, the endeavors to remedy them, and the attendant discussions and experiments, tended strongly to develop and introduce better systems and the use of better means. Out of these early lyceum movements originated many permanent educational, library, and lecture associations, as well as innumerable local improvements in the organization, instruction, and discipline of schools, public, and private.

The proceedings of its several meetings, as well as such of the reports, essays, &c., as were published, appeared, with few exceptions, in the Annals of Education. The publications of the first year were also issued in pamphlets form. Several of the essays on the fine arts appeared in the American Monthly Magazine.

JOSIAH HOLBROOK.

JOSEPH HOLBROOK, the originator of the American Lyceum, and one of the earliest and altogether the most efficient promoter of the American movement in popular education by means of scientific lectures, and classes and associations of adults for mutual improvement, was born in Derby, Conn., in 1788, and graduated at Yale College in 1810. Inspired by Prof. Silliman with a love of Chemistry and Geology, he cultivated these studies after his graduation, while in charge of the paternal farm in 1819; and following the example of Fellenberg, whose enterprise at Hofwyl had become known in this country, commenced an Agricultural Seminary at Derby in connection with Rev. Truman Coe, in 1824. About this time he began to lecture on his favorite sciences to miscellaneous audiences in the villages of the western part of Connecticut and Massachusetts; and in 1826 he published his plan of "Association of Adults for the purpose of Mutual Education," which he had the satisfaction to help to embody in an organization at Millbury, Mass., called the "*Millbury Lyceum, No. 1 branch of the American Lyceum,*" in 1826; in the Worcester County Lyceum in 1827; in the Boston Mechanics' Lyceum in 1830; in the Massachusetts State Lyceum in 1831; and in the American Lyceum in 1831; besides hundreds of similar associations in different parts of the country.

In 1825 Mr. Holbrook began to manufacture cheap apparatus for illustrating Geography, Geometry, and Natural Philosophy, which he greatly extended in 1829, in connection with Timothy Claxton, in Boston, and which is still known in the schools of the country as the Holbrook School Apparatus.

In, 1830 he issued the first of a series of *Scientific Tracts*, and in 1832 published the first number of the "*Family Lyceum.*" In 1837 he entered on the enterprise of building up a community at Berea, Ohio, called the Lyceum Village, and in 1842 became central agent of a plan of School Exchanges, having its office in the building of the Trustees of the Public School Society of New York. This last plan contemplated the spread of his method of school instruction, as set forth by S. W. Seton, in the Fortieth Report of the Trustees in 1846.

Mr. Holbrook died in May, 1854, near Lynchburg, Va. For an extended memoir, with a portrait; See *Barnard's American Educators*, Vol. II.

THEODORE DWIGHT.

THEODORE DWIGHT, JR., an efficient laborer in the field of popular enlightenment by his pen, as author, and editor and correspondent of educational magazines and newspapers, and an active participator in the Lyceum movement inaugurated by Josiah Holbrook, was born in Hartford, Conn., in 1796, and graduated at Yale College, in 1814.

Among Mr. Dwight's publications are "*A Tour in Italy*, 1821." "*The Schoolmaster's Friend and the Committee-man's Guide*, 1835." "*Dictionary of Roots and Derivatives*, 1837." "*The Father's Book*, 1837." "*History of Connecticut*, 1841." "*The American Magazine*, 1845–1852." "*Lecture on Management of Common Schools*, 1835."

XII. THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

PRELIMINARY MEASURES.

THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION had its origin in the comprehensive plans instituted by the Commissioner of Public Schools (Henry Barnard) in 1843, to disseminate as widely as possible, by all the agencies within his reach, a knowledge of existing defects and practical remedies, and to awake in parents, teachers, school committees, and the public generally, an inquiring, intelligent and active interest in all that relates to the advancement of public schools and popular education in Rhode Island. Among these agencies and means are enumerated by him, in his report to the Legislature in 1845, the following:—(1.) The Public Lecture and Conference, not only in every county, but in every town, and every large neighborhood in every town. (2.) The conversation of an itinerating agent in towns and districts where a school-house was to be built, and the schools graded. (3.) The cheap, or gratuitous circulation of educational tracts, documents and periodicals. (4.) The establishment of a library of books on education, agriculture, the mechanic arts, &c., in every town. (5.) The formation and coöperation of associations of teachers, school-officers, and friends of education in towns, counties, and the State, for the advancement of the common object. (6.) The holding of Teachers' Institutes for the more prolonged and systematic discussion of methods of instruction and the whole subject of school management. (7.) The establishment of at least one Normal School. On the subject of educational associations, in the Report in 1845, above referred to, the Commissioner remarks:

> Teachers in every town have been urged to hold occasional meetings, or even a single meeting, for the purpose of listening to practical lectures and discussions, or what would in most cases be better, of holding familiar conversation together, on topics connected with the arrangement of schools, on methods of instruction now practiced or recommended in the various periodicals or books which they have consulted, and on the condition of their own schools. But something more permanent and valuable than these occasional meetings has been aimed at by an organization of the teachers of the State, or at least of a single county, into a Teachers' Institute, with a systematic plan of operations from year to year, which shall afford to young and inexperienced teachers an opportunity to review the studies they are to teach, and so witness, and to some extent practice, the best methods of arranging and conducting the classes of a school, as well as of obtaining the matured views of the best teachers and educators on all the great

topics of education, as brought out in public lectures, discussions and conversation. The attainments of solitary reading will thus be quickened by the action of living mind. The acquisition of one will be tested by the experience and strictures of others. New advances in any direction by one teacher will become known, and made the common property of the profession. Old and defective methods will be held up, exposed and corrected, while valuable hints will be followed out and proved. The tendency to a dogmatical tone and spirit, to one-sided and narrow views, to a monotony of character—which every good teacher fears, and to which most professional teachers are exposed, will be withstood and obviated. The sympathies of a common pursuit, the interchange of ideas, the discussion of topics which concern their common advancement, the necessity of extending their reading and inquiries, and of cultivating the habit of written and oral expression, all these things will attach teachers to each other, elevate their own character and attainments, and the social and pecuniary estimation of the profession.

One such institute was organized in Washington county last winter, and held five meetings, at which written and verbal reports were made by teachers respecting the condition of their respective schools, the difficulties encountered from irregularity of attendance and want of uniformity of books, the methods of classification, instruction and government pursued, and the encouragement received from the occasional visits of parents and committees, This institute proposes to hold a meeting, after the teachers of the county are engaged for the present season, to continue in session from one to two weeks.

The object aimed at was to bring the friends of school improvement, scattered over a town, county, or the State even, together, as often as their convenience will allow, that by an interchange of views and acquaintance with each other, they may form new bonds of sympathy and channels of united effort in promoting its success. It is applying to the advancement of public schools the same instrumentality which has proved so useful in every other great enterprise of the day.

The earliest association of the kind was formed in Washington county; and, within a period of a little more than a year from its organization, it has held twelve general meetings in the different towns in the county, most of which have continued in session through two days; secured the services of a local agent to inspect the schools and deliver lectures in every district; and by the circulation of books, periodicals and documents on this subject, has awakened a very general and lively interest, and laid the foundation of great and progressive improvements in the organization, instruction and discipline of public schools.

The Kent County Association was formed in February last, and has held general meetings in most of the large neighborhoods of the county, which have in most instances been numerously attended by parents and others residing in the immediate vicinity.

The Smithfield and Cumberland Institute has held ten public meetings, and includes among its officers and members some of the most ardent and intelligent friends of education in the State.

The Rhode Island Institute of Instruction was formed in January last; and its officers and members, by attending and addressing public meetings in different parts of the State, have already rendered me very important coöperation, and done essential service in the cause of educational improvement.

These associations should be extended so as to embrace the females, and especially the mothers of a district or town. Let the mothers read, converse with each other, and become well informed as to what constitutes a good school; and the fathers and brothers who are voters will be reminded of their neglect of the school interest of the district or town. Let them visit the places where their little children are doomed to every species of discomfort; and improvements in the seats, desks, modes of warming and ventilating schoolrooms will follow. There is a motive power in the ardor and strength of maternal love, if it can once be properly informed and enlisted in this work, which must act most powerfully and beneficently on the improvement of public schools and the progress of society generally.

The following account of the formation and proceedings of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, is drawn from the official records and printed documents of the Society.

THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

On the suggestion of Mr. Barnard, a preliminary meeting was held in the City Council Chamber, on Friday evening, December 23d, 1844, of which N. Bishop, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Providence, was chairman. After the reading of a communication from Mr. Barnard, and remarks by Messrs. Kingsbury, Perry, and others, a committee was appointed consisting of Messrs. Kingsbury, Day, Perry, Bishop, and Stimpson, to take the subject into consideration and report at a future meeting.

The following Report, was submitted to a meeting in the State House, January 21, 1845, by Mr. Kingsbury, in behalf of the committee:

At the suggestion of Mr. Barnard, State Agent of Public Schools, a meeting of teachers and friends of education was held a few weeks since, in the City Council Chamber, for the purpose of considering the subject of a State Society for the promotion of public school education. Mr. N. Bishop, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Providence, was called to the chair, and after discussion by several individuals, it was voted, that Messrs. Kingsbury, Bishop, Perry, Day and Stimpson be a committee to take the subject into further consideration, and, if it be deemed expedient, to report at a future meeting. That committee having given the subject a considerable share of attention, beg leave to present the following report:

Whatever doubt may exist in regard to the influence of popular education in other countries, there can be none in regard to the United States. *Here* it may be assumed as an axiom that the people—the *whole* people—should be educated. Our institutions, civil, political, and religious, all imperatively demand it. *How* shall it be done? is the only question that admits of discussion. To this question only one rational answer can be given—chiefly by public schools.

Whatever influence may be exerted by the Press, by the College and High Schools in advancing education,—and we have no doubt but *that* influence is great and indispensable; it is not for a moment to be supposed that these means are sufficient to educate a *whole people*. History does not present a solitary example of a country or province where education has been universal, without some instrumentality analagous to Common Schools.

Literature and science may flourish where only the *wealthy few* are highly educated. It is possible that *the few*, by monopolizing the emoluments and privileges which superior knowledge confers, may, while the *many* are toiling in agriculture or mechanic arts, rise to higher attainments, and cause science and literature to take deeper root and to bring forth mature fruits. Though such fruits might bring blessings with them, the genius of our institutions requires rather the diffusion than the accumulation of knowledge. It was the boast of Henry IV., of France, that he would "take care that every peasant should be in such a condition as to have a fowl in his pot." It should be the care of *our country* that *every child should be educated.*

Our forefathers laid us under deep obligations, therefore, when they consecrated the common school to the education of the people. Ought we not deeply to regret that within our own State that mission has not been fully accomplished. There are those among us who can not read or write. Never should the friends of education rest till this stain is wiped from the escutcheon of the State. Though we hail with delight the deep interest now beginning to be awakened in different parts of the State, still it is an important question what further can be done to give our public school system an impulse so vigorous as to send its fullest blessings to the most secluded district.

Light must be diffused in regard to the subject. Parents must be roused from apathy by having the evils of ignorance and the blessings of knowledge placed before them; the connection between crime and ignorance must be shown; it must be demonstrated that knowledge not only leads to higher elevation of character here and better hopes of a future life, but it must be proved that an intelligent, educated man will earn more money than an ignorant one; the incompetency of

teachers must be exposed, and public sentiment must be made to demand better; in short, we should all be brought to the full conviction that good public schools are a powerful safeguard of our country. In view of these and similar considerations, we deem it expedient to form, at the present time, a State Association for the promotion of public school education.

Mr. Barnard addressed the meeting on the necessity of associated and coöperated efforts on the part of all the parties to whom the education of the children and the youth of the State was committed. Teachers in the schools of the different grades, and in different parts of the State, know nothing of each other, and are sometimes thought to have antagonistic interests, instead of laboring together for professional improvement. Parents do not understand how much depends on home preparation and coöperation to aid the teacher. Public spirited citizens do not appreciate the connection between ignorance, and low vicious tastes, and habits ripening into crime, or see the pecuniary value of a good education.

The community generally need to understand better than now the necessary conditions of a successful system of public schools—good school-houses, intelligent and faithful committees, punctual and regular attendance of pupils, and above *all*, well qualified, permanently employed, and progressive teachers—and that all these conditions rested on liberal pecuniary appropriations, and these could not be had without an active, intelligent public interest in the Legislature, and in town and district meetings. To exite and direct this interest, frequent meetings and discussions must be held in every neighborhood of the State. One man, no matter how willing to work, or how industrious, could not get up and address as many meetings as it was desirable to hold. Wherever school-houses were to be built—and good school-houses were needed not only in every town, but in nearly every district—wherever a gradation system was practicable, and this could be effected in every manufacturing village—wherever permanent teachers could be employed, and this should be done in every town, and in all the large districts—wherever taxes on property were to be levied, and this was necessary in every town,—public opinion must be enlightened if wise and liberal meaures were to be adopted. Here is a field in which every intelligent teacher and friend of education can take an active part under the auspices of a State Association, of which the people could not be jealous, as belonging to no particular party or sect.

Besides this great fundamental object of all individual and associated effort—the awakening of an inquiring, intelligent, and active interest on the whole subject of public schools and popular education—there were certain special measures, in which as State Commissioner he needed immediate help, if the interest already awakened was to be followed by permanent and extensive improvement in the organization and instruction of the public schools, and the education of the community. The advocacy of the public press must be enlisted. Not only the political and religious newspapers which circulate in the State must recognize and discuss the movement, but periodicals and tracts exclusively devoted to the thorough discussion of educational topics of general and local interest must be printed and distributed. Arrangements have already been made to have at least sixteen pages of educational reading matter attached to every Almanac sold in the State in the winter of 1844–45, by which he could *discern* already the germs of school reforms scattered broadcast in at least ten thousand families. By the wayside and fireside lectures and intinerating normal classes of William S. Baker in the southern portion of the State, a demonstration will be made of the value of a system of school inspection conducted by practical teachers and educators, and pervading

every town and district. By a cheap and comprehensive system of County Teachers' Institutes, gathering in, not a few, but a large majority of all the teachers of the State, each scholar under the instruction by day of accomplished and experienced professors, and with lectures and exercises in the evening will be sure to attract, interest, and instruct parents, school officers, and the people generally—the value of professional training, and glimpses at least of the science and art, and the results of education, will be seen and felt. Out of these and other measures will grow up the State Normal School, for the professional training of R. I., young men and young women for the teachers of the children and youth of the State, as well as Public Libraries and courses of Popular Lectures in every town and large village, by which the work of self-education will be carried on among the adults in the homes, the factories, and the field. This is the large comprehensive work in which he invited teachers of every name, and parents of every town, and public men of all parties and denominations to share in some plan of associated effort. The framework of such an association need be very simple, as was shown in the draft of the Constitution, which he read.

The Report of the Committee and this plan set forth by Mr. Barnard, after being discussed by Mr. Bishop, Dr. Hartshorn, Prof. Gammell, Hon. Wilkins Updike, Col. Pitman, Mr. Tourtellott, Mr. A. O. Peck, and the Rev. T. H. Gallaudet of Connecticut, was referred to a committee, of which Mr. Barnard was chairman, who were instructed to present a Constitution to an adjourned meeting to be held in Providence on the 24th ult.

At the adjourned meeting of the Westminster Hall, on the evening of January 25th, 1845, Hon. Wilkins Updike, of South Kingston, in the chair, the committee reported back the draft of a Constitution prepared by Mr. Barnard, which, after remarks by Mr. Barnard, Pres. Wayland, Prof. Caswell, Rev. Mr. Osgood, Mr. Perry, and Mr. Bishop, was adopted as follows:

Constitution.

Article 1. This association shall be styled the *Rhode Island Institute of Instruction*, and shall have for its object the improvement of public schools and other means of popular education in this State.

Article 2. Any person residing in this State may become a member of the Institute by subscribing this Constitution and contributing any sum towards defraying its incidental expenses.

Article 3. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, two or more Vice-Presidents, a Recording Secretary, a Corresponding Secretary, a Treasurer, (with such powers and duties respectively as their several designations imply,) and Directors, who shall together constitute an Executive Committee.

Article 4. The Executive Committee shall carry into effect such measures as the Institute may direct; and for this purpose, and to promote the general object of the Institute, may appoint special committees, collect and disseminate information, call public meetings for lectures and discussions, circulate books, periodicals and pamphlets on the subject of schools, school systems and education generally, and perform such other acts as they may deem expedient, and make report of their doings to the Institute at its annual meeting.

Article 5. A meeting of the Institute for the choice of officers shall be held annually, in the city of Providence, in the month of January, at such time and place as the executive committee may designate, in a notice published in one or more of the city papers; and meetings may be held at such other times and places as the executive committee may appoint.

Article 6. This Constitution may be altered at any annual meeting by a majority of the members present, and any regulations not inconsistent with its provisions may be adopted at any meeting.

At an adjourned meeting held in the vestry of the First Baptist Church, on the 29th of January, the following officers, provided for in the Constitution, were elected:

JOHN KINGSBURY, President.
WILKINS UPDIKE, Vice-President, *Washington County.*
ARIEL BALLOU, Vice-President, *Providence County.*
NATHAN BISHOP, Corresponding Secretary.
J. D. GIDDINGS, Recording Secretary.
THOMAS C. HARTSHORN, Treasurer.

Directors.

William Gammell, Providence.
Joseph T. Sisson, North Providence.
J. B. Tallman, Cumberland.
L. W. Ballou, Cumberland.
J. T. Harkness, Smithfield.
J. S. Tourtellott, Gloucester.
Amos Perry, Providence.
Caleb Farnum, Providence,
Samuel Greene, Smithfield.

After remarks by Prof. Gammell, Pitnam, Day, Farnum, Bishop, Dwight, Waterman, and Barnard, resolutions were passed inviting the coöperation of citizens of Rhode Island in the efforts of the Institute to improve the character of the Public Schools, and elevate the social and moral condition of the people.

The operations of the Institute for 1845 are set forth in the following extracts from the First Annual Report of the Executive Committee, drawn up by Prof. Gammell:

The Rhode Island Institute of Instruction had its origin in the public interest, which, one year ago, had begun to appear among the people of this State in the cause of common school education. Its single object, in the language of its constitution, is "the improvement of public schools and the other means of popular education in this State." It was designed to be an organization which should embrace the friends of common school instruction in every town, and unite them in some systematic measures for diffusing information, and in all other appropriate methods, for advancing a cause most intimately connected with the best interests of the entire people of Rhode Island. It owes its origin in no small degree to the results which had already been accomplished by a similar association in the county of Washington, and to the untiring efforts and comprehensive views of the Commissioner of Schools, appointed by the authority of the General Assembly.

In discharging the duties assigned them by the constitution, the Executive Committee have aimed to keep steadily in view the truly liberal and noble objects for which this association was formed; and in all the measures which they have adopted, they have relied upon the advice of the State Commissioner, and sought to carry out the views by which he was already directing his official labors. Indeed, the measures which the Committee have thus far adopted, have been designed simply to coöperate with this officer in his attempts to unite all hearts and all hands in the patriotic work of raising the standard of popular education in Rhode Island.

I. Of these measures, the first and most important has been the holding of meetings of this Institute, and of the friends of education in the different districts of the State. No means have been found more effective than this for calling the attention of the people to the importance and extent of the subject, and for diffusing information respecting it. These meetings have been held in this city, in Newport, Bristol, Warren, Woonsocket, East Greenwich, Valley Falls, Chepatchet, Olneyville, Scituate, Fruit Hill, Pawtuxet, Foster and Kingston—in all, in fifteen different towns. They have usually had two sessions; and, in some instances, they have been continued with unabated interest through two successive days. All but two of these meetings have been attended by the President of this Institute, and most of them by the State Commissioner, and by some of the members of this Executive Committee. In these several towns, not only have the meetings been well attended and aided by the teachers and resident citizens, but

in many cases the officers and members of the Institute have been received with a respect, and entertained with a hospitality which the Committee take great pleasure in acknowledging, both on their own personal account, and because they regard it as a cheering indication of the interest which is felt in the cause of education.

At the meetings which have thus been held, it has been the aim of the Committee to elicit from teachers and citizens who might be present, information respecting the local schools, and also to present views and facts pertaining to the most important elementary interests of education, and to the modes of managing common schools. Of the subjects which have been thus discussed, the following may serve as examples, viz.:

"How parents can coöperate with teachers."
"The value of a sound public sentiment on the subject of education."
"That the whole community, and not a part, should be educated."
"Methods of disciplining and managing schools."
"The necessity of a gradation of schools."
"Methods of securing good teachers."
"Public schools the only available method of educating the entire community."
"Importance of educating the young morally as well as intellectually."
"Methods of teaching reading."
"Methods of teaching spelling."
"Music as a branch of education in schools."
"That a State, in order to make the most of its resources, must know how to use them."
"That a State will increase in wealth in proportion to the intelligence of its population."

Upon all these subjects, which form but a small part of those presented for discussion at the meetings of the Institute, it has been the aim of the Committee to elicit the views of experienced teachers and also of citizens of every profession and every occupation, in order that the best results might be obtained, and the opinions and sympathies of all classes of the community might be united in what we have desired to render an engrossing subject of attention throughout the State.

II. Another means which the Executive Committee have adopted in the accomplishment of the objects they have had in view, has been the establishment of a semi-monthly publication, known as the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction. This journal has been placed under the charge of Henry Barnard, Esq., the State Commissioner of Public Schools, with the assistance of T. C. Hartshorn, Esq., the Treasurer of the Institute, as business agent. Mr. Barnard has consented to assume this new labor, in addition to the duties of his office, and has already issued, including the *extras*, five numbers, which have been circulated among the subscribers through the State. In connection with these numbers of the Journal, and under the same auspices, a series of "Educational Tracts" has been commenced. Five of these "Tracts" have been already published and circulated. The subjects to which they relate are,—1. "The Condition of Education in the United States, with an outline of the School Systems of Connecticut and New York." 2. "Education in its relations to health, insanity, labor, pauperism and crime." 3. "The School System of Massachusetts." 4. "Plans for School-houses." 5. "Hints to teachers on instruction in reading." The end which was intended to be accomplished by the publication, both of the Journal and the Tracts, is the diffusion of valuable information and the inculcation of sound views concerning common schools, not only among teachers and those immediately concerned in their management, but among all classes of citizens. It is the earnest hope of the Committee that these publications will receive the attention of the friends of education in all parts of the State, in order that, if possible, the views and the facts which they contain may reach every family that has children to be educated, and every citizen who has a vote to give or an influence to exert in relation to public instruction.

III. During the autumn, previously to the opening of the district schools for the winter, the State Commissioner adopted the measure, which in other States had been attended with most valuable results, of holding meetings of teachers for the purpose of interchanging views respecting the best modes of teaching and managing schools. These meetings, which have been known by the name of

"Teachers' Institutes," were held under the direction of Mr. Barnard, with the aid and coöperation of this Committee, at Woonsocket, Scituate, Kingston and Newport. At these several places, the teachers came together in considerable numbers from the neighboring towns, and spent several days in discussing the principles and practicing with each other the most approved methods of common school instruction. No meetings which have been held in connection with the interests of education, it is believed, have excited so deep an interest as these gatherings of teachers. Indeed, from the eminently practical character which was given to them, they deserve to be regarded as a species of normal schools, in which newly appointed teachers were made acquainted with the results of large experience and varied acquirements, and in which all were more deeply impressed with the importance of their vocation, and the magnitude of the social and moral interests intrusted to their care. The benefits which have resulted from them may even now be traced in the improved discipline, in the more thorough instruction, and in the pervading spirit of many of the schools of the State.

IV. In addition to the measures which have been enumerated above, the Executive Committee have adopted one other, which they deemed in some degree necessary, in order to give efficiency and success to the means they had already employed. In prosecuting their labors, they constantly experienced the want of some person, practically acquainted with common school instruction and favorably known to the people of the State, who might be able to give his whole time to the work which this Committee are charged with accomplishing. They accordingly appointed Mr. William S. Baker, of South Kingston, to act as the agent of this Institute in promoting the objects for which it has been organized. Mr. Baker having had ample experience as a teacher, and being in every other way well qualified for the service to which he was appointed, has been for several months engaged in labors, in conjunction with the Commissioner, and under the direction of this Committee, which have everywhere, it is believed, been attended with the most gratifying success. He travels from town to town, converses with the people at their homes and by the wayside, visits the schools, holds meetings of the parents, and in every other practicable mode seeks to sustain, and still farther to extend, the interest which the people of Rhode Island have begun to feel in the schools which are to educate their children.

Such is an outline of the measures which the Executive Committee have adopted for accomplishing the purposes of this Association. They have been devised and carried into execution in accordance with the spirit of the constitution, and have been directed to the single object of increasing the facilities, and raising the standard of common school education in this State. How far this object has been accomplished, within the year now closing, it may be impossible very accurately to estimate.. They who labor for the education of the young, must wait for a future day to develop the results of their labors. No striking changes—no brilliant consequences are to be expected. The seeds only can be sown—the harvest is to be reaped and the sheaves to be gathered by the hands of other generations. The Executive Committee, however, find reason to believe that the work which this Institute is engaged in promoting has made some progress during the year which has passed. It has been their aim to second the judicious legislation which has been so unanimously adopted by the General Assembly, and to aid the Commissioner of Public Schools in performing the arduous and important work with which he is charged; and they hope that, by the information which has been created in the minds of the community, an impulse has been given to the cause of popular education, which will continue to be felt for many years to come.

In addition to the measures which have thus far been prosecuted by this Association, the Executive Committee beg leave to refer to two others which they hope may be adopted, and to some extent carried into execution during the year that is commencing. These are—1. The establishment of popular lectures as widely as possible in the villages and school-districts of the State. 2. The founding of town libraries, to be composed of books suited for the instruction of the people, especially of the young, in the several branches of useful knowledge."

The Series of Educational Tracts as originally planned, and a list of the Books and Pamphlets relating to Schools, School Systems, and Education, with the number of copies actually circulated up to 1846, and the Topics of Mr. Barnard's Lectures, will be found in Mr. Barnard's Report for 1846.

EDUCATIONAL TRACTS.

The series, as originally planned, was to embrace a number devoted to each of the following topics:

Condition of Education in the United States according to the census of 1840, with an outline of the System of Common Schools in New York and Connecticut.

System of Common Schools in Massachusetts.

Education in its relation to health, insanity, labor, pauperism and crime.

School Architecture, or plans and directions for the location, construction and internal arrangements of school-houses.

Outline of a System of Popular Education for cities and populous villages with an account of the Public Schools of Boston, Providence, Portland, Philadelphia, Rochester, &c.

Outline of a System of Popular Education for manufacturing communities.

Hints respecting the organization and arrangement of public schools in agricultural and sparsely populated districts.

Hints respecting the examination of teachers and the visitation of schools.

Library of Education, or a catalogue of books and periodicals, devoted to the theory and practice of education, with an index to the principal topics treated of in such volumes as are most accessible to teachers.

Hints and methods for teaching the Alphabet.
" " " Spelling.
" " " Pronunciation.
" " " Reading.
" " " Composition.
" " " Grammar.
" " " Geography.
" " " Arithmetic.
" " " Drawing.
" " " Vocal Music.

The use of globes and other means of visible illustration.

Lesson on objects, form, &c., for Primary Schools.

Topics and methods for oral instruction.

Plan of School Register, Class Books, and explanations for their use.

Slate and blackboard exercises, with particular reference to teaching small children.

Duties of teacher and pupil in respect to the school-house.

Duties of parents to the school, with plan of an association of the females of a district or town for the improvement of public schools.

Modes in which young men and young women can become qualified to teach schools.

Teachers' Associations—with plans of organization and topics for discussions.

Teachers' Institutes—their history, and hints for their organization and management.

Normal Schools—their history in Europe, with an account of the Normal Schools in Massachusetts and New York.

Hints respecting physical education in public schools.

Hints as to instruction in manners and morals, with special reference to the conduct of teachers and pupils during recess and intermissions.

School Libraries—their history, with a catalogue of suitable volumes, and an index to the most important subjects treated of in them.

Lyceums, Lectures, and other means of Popular Education, with plans of organization, &c.

BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, AND DOCUMENTS,

Relating to Schools, School Systems, and Education, generally, circulated in the State from November 15, 1843, *to January*, 1846.

1,000 copies of Barnard's Report on School Architecture.
200 " " " on the Education and Employment of Children in Factories, &c.
60 " " " on the Schools and School System of Conn.
150 " " Hints and Methods for the use of Teachers.
3,000 " Educational Tracts, No. 1, pp. 16. Education in the United States according to the census of 1840, with an Outline of the School Systems of Connecticut and Massachusetts.
3,000 " Educational Tracts, No. 2. History and Condition of the School System of Massachusetts.
3,000 " Educational Tracts, No. 3. Education in its relation to Health, Insanity, Labor, Pauperism, and Crime.
3,000 " Educational Tracts, No. 4. Plans for the Location, Construction, and Internal Arrangement of School-houses.
9,000 " or 3,000 copies each of three pamphlets relating to Schools and Education, attached to the Farmer's and Rhode Island Almanacs for 1845.
400 " Mann's Report on Education in Europe.
100 " " Lecture on Education.
100 " " Oration on Education in the United States.
100 " " Letters on Religious Instruction in Common Schools.
35 " " Annual Reports as Secretary of the Board of Education in Massachusetts.
35 " " Abstract of the School Returns, with a History of the Common School System of Massachusetts.
200 " Massachusetts Common School Journal, Volume 6, for 1844.
35 " " " " " Volumes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, & 6.
300 " New York District School Journal, Volume 5, for 1844–5.
35 " Common School Journal of Pennsylvania, Volume 1, 1844.
60 " Connecticut Common School Journal, Volumes 1, 2, 3, & 4.
200 " School and School-master.
100 " Annual Report of Superintendent of Common Schools in New York, for 1844.
35 " Annual Report, with Annual Reports of Deputy Superintendents.
100 " Henry's Address on Education and Common Schools.
100 " Randall's (Henry S.) Report on District School Libraries.
50 " Randall's (Samuel S.) Digest of Laws and Decisions relating to the Common School System of New York.
100 " Lecture, by G. B. Emerson, on Moral Education.
30 " " " " on the Advan. of Common Schools.
50 " Prof. Stowe's Report on Elementary Education in Europe.
50 " " " Teachers' Seminaries.
50 " " " Lecture on the Religious Element in Education.
50 " Northend's Lecture on Obstacles to Improvement in Common Schools.
35 " Thayer's Lecture on Courtesy or Good Behavior in Schools.
35 " Dr. Alcott's Confessions of a School-master.
100 " " Slate and Blackboard Exercises.
50 " Rantoul's Remarks on Common Schools and Ed[illegible]
60 " Burton's District School as it was.
35 " Smith's History of Education.
35 " Annals of Education.
35 " Miss Sedgwick's Self-Training for Young [illegible]
35 " Dr. Channing on Self-Culture.
12 " Wood's Account of Sessional School, Edinbu[illegible]
30 " Ric[illegible] [illegible]ress on Common Schools.
10 " Wi[illegible] [illegible]overn my School?
25 " Du[illegible] [illegible]' Manual.

[The following topics, principally on the internal arrangement and management of a common school were introduced by Mr. Barnard into his public addresses, and were drawn up in their present order, to direct in some measure the addresses and discussions, of teachers and others on the theory and practice of education, at meetings held for the special benefit of teachers. It is important that parents, and the public generally should understand the best principles and methods of school arrangement, instruction, and government, that they may sustain and coöperate with the good teacher in his arduous work in the school-room. The other topics thoroughly understood will facilitate the improvement of our school system.]

1. The daily preparation which the teacher should bring to the school-room.
2. The circumstances which make a teacher happy in school.
3. The requisites of success in teaching.
4. Causes of failure in teaching.
5. The course to be pursued in organizing a school.
6. The order of exercises or programme of recitations.
7. The policy of promulgating a code of rules for the government of a school.
8. The keeping of registers of attendance and progress.
9. The duties of the teacher to the parents of the children and to school-officers.
10. The opening and closing exercises of a school.
11. Moral and religious instruction and influence generally.
12. The best use of the Bible or Testament in school.
13. Modes of promoting a love of truth, honesty, benevolence, and other virtues among children.
14. Modes of promoting obedience to parents, respectful demeanor to elders, and general submission to authority.
15. Modes of securing cleanliness of person and neatness of dress, respect for the school-room, courtesy of tone and language to companions, and gentleness of manners.
16. Modes of preserving the school-house and appurtenances from injury and defacement.
17. Length and frequency of recess.
18. The games, and modes of exercise and recreation to be encouraged during the recess, and at intermission.
19. Modes of preventing tardiness, and securing the regular attendance of children at school.
20. Causes by which the health and constitution of children at school are impaired, and the best ways of counteracting the same.
21. The government of a school generally.
22. The use and abuse of corporal punishment.
23. The establishment of the teacher's authority in the school.
24. Manner of treating stubborn and refractory children, and the policy of dismissing the same from school.
25. Prizes and rewards.
26. The use and abuse of emulation.
27. Modes of interesting and bringing forward dull, or backward scholars.
28. Modes of preventing whispering, and communication between scholars in school.
29. Manner of conducting recitations generally; and how to prevent or detect imperfect lessons.
30. Methods of teaching, with illustrations of each, viz:
 - *a.* Monitorial.
 - *b.* Individual.
 - *c.* Simultaneous.
 - *d.* Mixed.
 - *e.* Interrogative.
 - *f.* Explanative.
 - *g.* Elliptical.
 - *h.* Synthetical.
 - *i.* Analytical.

 ...ving all the children of a school (composed as most District ...ren of all ages, and in a great variety of studies,) at all ... and a motive for doing it.

[illegible]

a. [illegible]
b. [illegible]
c. [illegible]
d. [illegible]
e. [illegible]
f. [illegible]
g. [illegible]
h. [illegible]
i. [illegible]
j. [illegible]
k. [illegible]

22. [illegible]

24. [illegible]

25. [illegible]

26. [illegible]

27. [illegible]

28. [illegible]

31. [illegible]

41. [illegible]

42. [illegible]

43. [illegible]

44. [illegible]

45. [illegible]

46. [illegible]

47. [illegible]

48. [illegible]

49. [illegible]

50. Principles on which text-books in the several elementary studies should be composed.

51. The use of printed questions in text-books.

52. The private studies of a teacher.

53. The visiting of each other's schools.

54. The peculiar difficulties and encouragements of each teacher, in respect to school-house, attendance, supply of books, apparatus, parental interest and co-operation, support by committees, &c., &c.

55. The practicability of organizing an association of the mothers and females generally of a district or town, to visit schools, or of their doing so without any special organization.

56. Plan for the organization, course of instruction, and management generally of a Teachers Institute.

57. Advantages of an Association or Conference of the Teachers of a Town or State, and the best plan of organizing and conducting the same.

58. Plan of a Normal School or Seminary, for the training of teachers for Common or Public Schools.

The Second Annual Report of the Executive Committee, drawn up by Mr. Amos Perry, Principal of a Public Grammar School, Providence, was submitted to the Annual Meeting in Providence, on the 7th of January, 1847. The following extracts will show the direction in which the Institute directed its labors:

By the untiring efforts of the president and the generosity of numerous public spirited citizens a special fund has been raised, and used under the direction of a special Committee, appointed by the Executive Committee, principally for three objects:—1. To circulate Educational Tracts and Periodicals; 2. To employ an agent; 3. To sustain Teachers' Institutes.

In all their efforts, the great aim of the Executive Committee has been to coöperate with the Commissioner of Public Schools, and aid him in accomplishing the leading purpose of his agency. At his suggestion, and from a full knowledge of the needs of the State, three series of publications were commenced, and have been completed within the last year. The subscription price was put lower than the first cost, to induce a large circulation, and thereby increase the usefulness of the publications. The Commissioner discharged, without compensation, the duties of editor and conductor. A part of the deficiency of receipts has been supplied from the special fund, and the remaining and much the larger part, by the Commissioner from his own resources.

The Journal and Extra Journal, comprising 470 pages, form a book of reference of great value and interest. The Educational Tracts, nine in number, and comprising 141 pages, were prepared to meet the immediate wants of the community, though some of them are worthy of lasting preservation, both on account of their subjects and the clear and forcible manner in which they are illustrated. The first five Tracts were printed previous to the first annual meeting of the Institute. The subject of No. 6 is,—"Aids to English Composition." No. 7, "Oral Instruction in English Grammar." No. 8, "The coöperation of parents solicited by the teacher of their children." No. 9, "The coöperation of children solicited by their teacher.

Mr. William S. Baker, of Warwick, has acted as agent of the Institute for eight months within two years. He has passed his time in lecturing, visiting schools, and in other ways laboring to promote the general object of the Institute. Mr. Baker has lectured in twenty-nine out of the thirty-one towns, and visited a large majority of the districts in them. He has every where been received with kindness, and listened to with attention, and it is believed that his efforts, under the joint direction of the Commissioner and of the special Committee, have been instrumental in awakening much interest and giving it a practical direction.

Arrangements were made by the Executive Committee in connection with Mr. Barnard for holding a Teachers' Institute in this city, during the second week of November.—Teachers from all parts of the State were invited to be present and participate in the privilege of the occasion without incurring for themselves the expense of board. Upwards of two hundred responded to the call, and indicated by their regular attendance and cheerful attention that they both enjoyed the exercises and were benefited by them.

Meetings of this kind are indispensable to the successful operation of a good system of Public Schools. They afford teachers and such as propose to teach, an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the best modes of instruction and discipline, and tend to elevate all the schools to a standard of uniform excellence. Rhode Island was the first State in the Union to sanction Teachers' Institutes by legal enactment, though she has not been the first to appropriate the means to secure their benefits. The Commissioner is authorized to establish them but not to draw any thing from the general treasury to meet their current expenses.

In immediate connection with Teachers' Institutes, the Commissioner is authorized to establish one thoroughly organized Normal School.

This institution should partake of the character of a permanent Teachers' Institute and of a Normal School, and combine the privileges of both. It need not and will not diminish effort in other directions, but will rather stimulate to greater
need not distract attention from old and tried means, but rather add
e general character to those already existing. Nothing can be
must be gained. The plan is practicable. It has been tried
d extent under the form of Teachers' Institutes.

32. Methods of teaching the several studies usually introduced into public schools—such as—

a. The use, and nature, and formation of numbers.
b. Mental Arithmetic.
c. Written Arithmetic.
d. Spelling.
e. Reading.
f. Grammar—including conversation, composition, analysis of sentences, parsing, &c.
g. Geography—including map-drawing, use of outline maps, atlas, globes, &c.
h. Drawing—with special reference to the employment of young children, and as preliminary to penmanship.
i. Penmanship.
j. Vocal music.
k. Physiology—so far at least as the health of children and teacher in the school-room is concerned.

33. The apparatus and means of visible illustration, necessary for the schools of different grades.

34. The development and cultivation of observation, attention, memory, association, conception, imagination, &c.

35. Modes of inspiring scholars with enthusiasm in study, and cultivating habits of self-reliance.

36. Modes of cultivating the power and habit of attention and study.

37. Anecdotes of occurrences in the school, brought forward with a view to form right principles of moral training and intellectual development.

38. Lessons, on real objects, and the practical pursuits of life.

39. Topics and times for introducing oral instruction, and the use of lectures generally.

40. Manner of imparting collateral and incidental knowledge.

41. The formation of museums and collections of plants, minerals, &c.

42. Exchange of specimens of penmanship, map and other drawings, minerals, plants, &c., between the different schools of a town, or of different towns.

43. School examinations generally.

44. How far committees should conduct the examination.

45. Mode of conducting an examination by written questions and answers.

46. School celebrations, and excursions of the school, or a portion of the scholars, to objects of interest in the neighborhood.

47. Length and frequency of vacations.

48. Books and periodicals on education, schools and school systems.

49. Principles to be regarded in the construction of a school-house for schools of different grades.

50. Principles on which text-books in the several elementary studies should be composed.

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teachers must be exposed, and public sentiment must be made to demand better; in short, we should all be brought to the full conviction that good public schools are a powerful safeguard of our country. In view of these and similar considerations, we deem it expedient to form, at the present time, a State Association for the promotion of public school education.

Mr. Barnard addressed the meeting on the necessity of associated and coöperated efforts on the part of all the parties to whom the education of the children and the youth of the State was committed. Teachers in the schools of the different grades, and in different parts of the State, know nothing of each other, and are sometimes thought to have antagonistic interests, instead of laboring together for professional improvement. Parents do not understand how much depends on home preparation and coöperation to aid the teacher. Public spirited citizens do not appreciate the connection between ignorance, and low vicious tastes, and habits ripening into crime, or see the pecuniary value of a good education.

The community generally need to understand better than now the necessary conditions of a successful system of public schools—good school-houses, intelligent and faithful committees, punctual and regular attendance of pupils, and above all, well qualified, permanently employed, and progressive teachers—and that all these conditions rested on liberal pecuniary appropriations, and these could not be had without an active, intelligent public interest in the Legislature, and in town and district meetings. To exite and direct this interest, frequent meetings and discussions must be held in every neighborhood of the State. One man, no matter how willing to work, or how industrious, could not get up and address as many meetings as it was desirable to hold. Wherever school-houses were to be built—and good school-houses were needed not only in every town, but in nearly every district—wherever a gradation system was practicable, and this could be effected in every manufacturing village—wherever permanent teachers could be employed, and this should be done in every town, and in all the large districts—wherever taxes on property were to be levied, and this was necessary in every town,—public opinion must be enlightened if wise and liberal meaures were to be adopted. Here is a field in which every intelligent teacher and friend of education can take an active part under the auspices of a State Association, of which the people could not be jealous, as belonging to no particular party or sect.

Besides this great fundamental object of all individual and associated effort—the awakening of an inquiring, intelligent, and active interest on the whole subject of public schools and popular education—there were certain special measures, in which as State Commissioner he needed immediate help, if the interest already awakened was to be followed by permanent and extensive improvement in the organization and instruction of the public schools, and the education of the community. The advocacy of the public press must be enlisted. Not only the political and religious newspapers which circulate in the State must recognize and discuss the movement, but periodicals and tracts exclusively devoted to the thorough discussion of educational topics of general and local interest must be printed and distributed. Arrangements have already been made to have at least sixteen pages of educational reading matter attached to every Almanac sold in the State in the winter of 1844–45, by which he could *discern* already the germs of school reforms scattered broadcast in at least ten thousand families. By the wayside and fireside lectures and intinerating normal classes of William S. Baker in the southern portion of the State, a demonstration will be made of the value of a system of school inspection conducted by practical teachers and educators, and pervading

every town and district. By a cheap and comprehensive system of County Teachers' Institutes, gathering in, not a few, but a large majority of all the teachers of the State, each scholar under the instruction by day of accomplished and experienced professors, and with lectures and exercises in the evening will be sure to attract, interest, and instruct parents, school officers, and the people generally—the value of professional training, and glimpses at least of the science and art, and the results of education, will be seen and felt. Out of these and other measures will grow up the State Normal School, for the professional training of R. I., young men and young women for the teachers of the children and youth of the State, as well as Public Libraries and courses of Popular Lectures in every town and large village, by which the work of self-education will be carried on among the adults in the homes, the factories, and the field. This is the large comprehensive work in which he invited teachers of every name, and parents of every town, and public men of all parties and denominations to share in some plan of associated effort. The framework of such an association need be very simple, as was shown in the draft of the Constitution, which he read.

The Report of the Committee and this plan set forth by Mr. Barnard, after being discussed by Mr. Bishop, Dr. Hartshorn, Prof. Gammell, Hon. Wilkins Updike, Col. Pitman, Mr. Tourtellott, Mr. A. O. Peck, and the Rev. T. H. Gallaudet of Connecticut, was referred to a committee, of which Mr. Barnard was chairman, who were instructed to present a Constitution to an adjourned meeting to be held in Providence on the 24th ult.

At the adjourned meeting of the Westminster Hall, on the evening of January 25th, 1845, Hon. Wilkins Updike, of South Kingston, in the chair, the committee reported back the draft of a Constitution prepared by Mr. Barnard, which, after remarks by Mr. Barnard, Pres. Wayland, Prof. Caswell, Rev. Mr. Osgood, Mr. Perry, and Mr. Bishop, was adopted as follows:

Constitution.

Article 1. This association shall be styled the *Rhode Island Institute of Instruction*, and shall have for its object the improvement of public schools and other means of popular education in this State.

Article 2. Any person residing in this State may become a member of the Institute by subscribing this Constitution and contributing any sum towards defraying its incidental expenses.

Article 3. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, two or more Vice-Presidents, a Recording Secretary, a Corresponding Secretary, a Treasurer, (with such powers and duties respectively as their several designations imply,) and Directors, who shall together constitute an Executive Committee.

Article 4. The Executive Committee shall carry into effect such measures as the Institute may direct; and for this purpose, and to promote the general object of the Institute, may appoint special committees, collect and disseminate information, call public meetings for lectures and discussions, circulate books, periodicals and pamphlets on the subject of schools, school systems and education generally, and perform such other acts as they may deem expedient, and make report of their doings to the Institute at its annual meeting.

Article 5. A meeting of the Institute for the choice of officers shall be held annually, in the city of Providence, in the month of January, at such time and place as the executive committee may designate, in a notice published in one or more of the city papers; and meetings may be held at such other times and places as the executive committee may appoint.

Article 6. This Constitution may be altered at any annual meeting by a majority of the members present, and any regulations not inconsistent with its provisions may be adopted at any meeting.

At an adjourned meeting held in the vestry of the First Baptist Church, on the 28th of January, the following officers, provided for in the Constitution, were elected:

JOHN KINGSBURY, President.
WILKINS UPDIKE, Vice-President, *Washington County.*
ARIEL BALLOU, Vice-President, *Providence County.*
NATHAN BISHOP, Corresponding Secretary.
J. D. GIDDINGS, Recording Secretary.
THOMAS C. HARTSHORN, Treasurer.

Directors.

William Gammell, Providence.
Joseph T. Sisson, North Providence.
J. B. Tallman, Cumberland.
L. W. Ballou, Cumberland.
J. T. Harkness, Smithfield.
J. S. Tourtellott, Gloucester.
Amos Perry, Providence.
Caleb Farnum, Providence,
Samuel Greene, Smithfield.

After remarks by Prof. Gammell, Pitnam, Day, Farnum, Bishop, Dwight, Waterman, and Barnard, resolutions were passed inviting the coöperation of citizens of Rhode Island in the efforts of the Institute to improve the character of the Public Schools, and elevate the social and moral condition of the people.

The operations of the Institute for 1845 are set forth in the following extracts from the First Annual Report of the Executive Committee, drawn up by Prof. Gammell:

The Rhode Island Institute of Instruction had its origin in the public interest, which, one year ago, had begun to appear among the people of this State in the cause of common school education. Its single object, in the language of its constitution, is "the improvement of public schools and the other means of popular education in this State." It was designed to be an organization which should embrace the friends of common school instruction in every town, and unite them in some systematic measures for diffusing information, and in all other appropriate methods, for advancing a cause most intimately connected with the best interests of the entire people of Rhode Island. It owes its origin in no small degree to the results which had already been accomplished by a similar association in the county of Washington, and to the untiring efforts and comprehensive views of the Commissioner of Schools, appointed by the authority of the General Assembly.

In discharging the duties assigned them by the constitution, the Executive Committee have aimed to keep steadily in view the truly liberal and noble objects for which this association was formed; and in all the measures which they have adopted, they have relied upon the advice of the State Commissioner, and sought to carry out the views by which he was already directing his official labors. Indeed, the measures which the Committee have thus far adopted, have been designed simply to coöperate with this officer in his attempts to unite all hearts and all hands in the patriotic work of raising the standard of popular education in Rhode Island.

I. Of these measures, the first and most important has been the holding of meetings of this Institute, and of the friends of education in the different districts of the State. No means have been found more effective than this for calling the attention of the people to the importance and extent of the subject, and for diffusing information respecting it. These meetings have been held in this city, in Newport, Bristol, Warren, Woonsocket, East Greenwich, Valley Falls, Chepatchet, Olneyville, Scituate, Fruit Hill, Pawtuxet, Foster and Kingston—in all, in fifteen different towns. They have usually had two sessions; and, in some instances, they have been continued with unabated interest through two successive days. All but two of these meetings have been attended by the President of this Institute, and most of them by the State Commissioner, and by some of the members of this Executive Committee. In these several towns, not only have the meetings been well attended and aided by the teachers and resident citizens, but

in many cases the officers and members of the Institute have been received with a respect, and entertained with a hospitality which the Committee take great pleasure in acknowledging, both on their own personal account, and because they regard it as a cheering indication of the interest which is felt in the cause of education.

At the meetings which have thus been held, it has been the aim of the Committee to elicit from teachers and citizens who might be present, information respecting the local schools, and also to present views and facts pertaining to the most important elementary interests of education, and to the modes of managing common schools. Of the subjects which have been thus discussed, the following may serve as examples, viz. :

"How parents can coöperate with teachers."
"The value of a sound public sentiment on the subject of education."
"That the whole community, and not a part, should be educated."
"Methods of disciplining and managing schools."
"The necessity of a gradation of schools."
"Methods of securing good teachers."
"Public schools the only available method of educating the entire community."
"Importance of educating the young morally as well as intellectually."
"Methods of teaching reading."
"Methods of teaching spelling."
"Music as a branch of education in schools."
"That a State, in order to make the most of its resources, must know how to use them."
"That a State will increase in wealth in proportion to the intelligence of its population."

Upon all these subjects, which form but a small part of those presented for discussion at the meetings of the Institute, it has been the aim of the Committee to elicit the views of experienced teachers and also of citizens of every profession and every occupation, in order that the best results might be obtained, and the opinions and sympathies of all classes of the community might be united in what we have desired to render an engrossing subject of attention throughout the State.

II. Another means which the Executive Committee have adopted in the accomplishment of the objects they have had in view, has been the establishment of a semi-monthly publication, known as the Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction. This journal has been placed under the charge of Henry Barnard, Esq., the State Commissioner of Public Schools, with the assistance of T. C. Hartshorn, Esq., the Treasurer of the Institute, as business agent. Mr. Barnard has consented to assume this new labor, in addition to the duties of his office, and has already issued, including the *extras*, five numbers, which have been circulated among the subscribers through the State. In connection with these numbers of the Journal, and under the same auspices, a series of "Educational Tracts" has been commenced. Five of these "Tracts" have been already published and circulated. The subjects to which they relate are,—1. "The Condition of Education in the United States, with an outline of the School Systems of Connecticut and New York." 2. "Education in its relations to health, insanity, labor, pauperism and crime." 3. "The School System of Massachusetts." 4. "Plans for School-houses." 5. "Hints to teachers on instruction in reading." The end which was intended to be accomplished by the publication, both of the Journal and the Tracts, is the diffusion of valuable information and the inculcation of sound views concerning common schools, not only among teachers and those immediately concerned in their management, but among all classes of citizens. It is the earnest hope of the Committee that these publications will receive the attention of the friends of education in all parts of the State, in order that, if possible, the views and the facts which they contain may reach every family that has children to be educated, and every citizen who has a vote to give or an influence to exert in relation to public instruction.

III. During the autumn, previously to the opening of the district schools for the winter, the State Commissioner adopted the measure, which in other States had been attended with most valuable results, of holding meetings of teachers for the purpose of interchanging views respecting the best modes of teaching and managing schools. These meetings, which have been known by the name of

sphere of his activity, and still retain the general direction of the educational movement, so happily begun under his auspices. But, with a feverish anxiety to work out to the full circumference of his duty in any official position, he knew there would be no rest to body or mind until he was out of office, and he therefore tendered his resignation. He did not write out his final report, as he had contemplated doing, but was invited by the Legislature to make an oral communication to the two Houses in Joint Convention, on the condition and improvement of the public schools. His address on this occasion is characterized by the Providence Journal "as most eloquent and impressive, and was listened to, for nearly two hours, with almost breathless attention." The following resolution was adopted by the unanimous vote of the Senate and House of Representatives, and the Governor was instructed to communicate the same to Mr. Barnard: —

Resolved, unanimously, that the thanks of this General Assembly be given to the Hon. Henry Barnard, for the able, faithful, and judicious manner in which he has, for the last five years, fulfilled the duties of Commissioner of Public Schools in the State of Rhode Island.

"There are few spectacles," says a writer in the North American Review, on the recent school movement in Rhode Island, "more worthy to excite an ardent yet rational enthusiasm, than the movement of a commonwealth, in a united purpose, and with resolute will, toward the accomplishment of any important end touching the moral or intellectual welfare of its citizens. When the value of the object is perceived by the mass of the people, and accepted by them as an interest for which they care and are ready to labor, our hopes for the progress of the race are confirmed and elevated. But, when a people are seen to recognize a great deficiency in the means of education, and, with one mind to take vigorous and rapid measures for its removal, they deserve indeed the highest praise. The efforts of the people of Rhode Island for their schools have been peculiar, in respect to the work which they had to accomplish, to the rapidity of the reform, to the unanimity and zeal with which it has been executed, to the permanent results which have been attained, and to the still higher promise for the future, of which these results give the assurance."

As soon as it was known that Mr. Barnard had determined to retire from the office of School Commissioner, the teachers of the State, through a committee appointed at the several Institutes, held in the autumn of 1849, presented him a silver pitcher, as a testimonial of their respect and friendship, and of their appreciation of his services in the cause of education, and of the interest which he had ever taken

in their professional improvement and individual welfare. The following correspondence took place on the occasion: —

To Hon. Henry Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools.

Dear Sir: —The teachers assembled at the several Institutes which were held in the State during the past year, on learning your intention of closing your official connection with the schools of Rhode Island, appointed the undersigned a committee to express their regret at your departure, and to present you some token of their appreciation of your services in the cause of education, and of the interest which you have always manifested in their professional improvement and individual welfare.

Of the extent of your labors in preparing the way for the thorough re-organization of our system of public schools, and in encountering successfully the many difficulties incident to the working of a new system, few of us can, probably, be aware.

But, we can speak from personal knowledge of the value of the Teachers' Institutes, which have from time been held by your appointment, and provided (too often, we fear, at your expense) with skillful and experienced instructors and practical lecturers; and, of the many books and pamphlets on education and teaching, which you have scattered broadcast over the State.

We can speak, too, of what the teachers of the State know from daily observation, —many of them from happy experience, —of the great change, —nay, revolution, —which you have wrought in our school architecture; by which, old, dilapidated, and unsightly district school-houses have given way for the many new, attractive, commodious, and healthy edifices which now adorn our hills and valleys.

We have seen, too, and felt the benefits of the more numerous and regular attendance of scholars, of the uniformity of text-books, the more vigilant supervision of school committees, and the more lively and intelligent interest and coöperation of parents in our labors, which have been brought about mainly by your efforts.

The fruits of your labors may also be seen in the courses of popular lectures which are now being held, and in the well-selected town, village, and district libraries, which you have assisted in establishing, and which are already scattering their life-giving influence through our beloved State.

In the consciousness of having been the main instrumentality in effecting these changes, for which the generations yet unborn will bless your memory, you have your own best reward. But, in behalf of the members of the Institutes, we ask you to accept the accompanying gift, as a small token of gratitude for these your labors, of their personal regard and friendship, and of their appreciation of your services in the cause of education in general, and to our profession in particular. We only wish it were more worthy of your acceptance.

Receive it, Sir, with our best wishes for your welfare. May your future course be as honorable to yourself, as the past has been useful to the children and youth of Rhode Island.

And, believe us, Sir, in behalf of the teachers of the State, your sincere and obedient servants,

Robert Allyn, Jenks Mowry, Solomon P. Wells, Fanny J. Burge, Jane Fifield, Sylvester Patterson, George W. Dodge.

Providence, January 30, 1849.

Providence, January 31, 1849.

To Messrs. Allyn, &c.

I feel deeply impressed by the honor you have done me in your communication of the 30th instant, and by the elegant and valuable present which accompanied the same, in the name of a large number of the teachers of Rhode Island. I shall ever bear in grateful remembrance the numberless acts of personal kindness and willing coöperation in my official labors which I have received from teachers both of public and private schools since my first connection with the cause of education in this State, and I accept this parting testimonial of their friendship, and too partial appreciation of my labors, as Commissioner of Public Schools, with a sense of

obligation greater than I can express. If, during the past five years, anything has been done to increase the facilities for individual and professional improvement enjoyed by teachers, and to raise the social and pecuniary estimation in which their services are held and rewarded; if any advance has been made toward the better organization and administration of a system of public schools, and the more thorough, complete, and practical education of the whole people, these results are the sum total of innumerable contributions, all of them as meritorious, and many of them, I doubt not, more important than my own. Every teacher who has, with or without the help of books, institutes, and sympathizing friends, made his school better than he found it; every school officer who has aimed faithfully to understand and execute all the details in the local administration of the new system; every person who, by his voice, his pen, his vote, his pecuniary aid, or his personal influence, has contributed to the earnest awakening of the Legislature and the people to the importance of this much-neglected public interest, and in favor of liberal and efficient measures of educational reform, has labored with me in a common field of usefulness, and is entitled to whatever of credit may be attached to a successful beginning of the enterprise.

Such is the nature of the ever-extending results of educational labor, that if a successful beginning has been made in any department of this field, no matter how small may be the measure of success, we should feel amply rewarded for our exertions, and, with love, hope, and patience in our hearts, we should hold on and hold out to the end. Whoever else may fail or falter, may every teacher in the State persevere until Rhode Island stands acknowledged before the world the model State, for her wise system of popular education. Then will her workshops be filled with intelligent, inventive, and contented laborers; her cities and villages be crowned with institutions of religion, benevolence, and charity, and every home throughout her borders be made a circle of unfading smiles.

The cause of true education, of the complete education of every human being, without regard to the accidents of birth or fortune, is worthy of the concentration of all our powers, and, if need be, of any sacrifice of time, money, and labor, we may be called upon to make in its behalf. Ever since the Great Teacher condescended to dwell among men, the progress of this cause has been upward and onward, and its final triumph has been longed for, and prayed for, and believed in, by every lover of his race. And, although there is much that is dark and dispairing in the past and present condition of society, yet, when we study the nature of education, and the necessity and capabilities of improvement all around us, with the sure word of prophecy in our hands, and with the evidence of what has already been accomplished, the future rises bright and glorious before us; and, on its forehead is the morning star, the herald of a better day than has yet dawned on our world. In this sublime possibility,—nay, in the sure word of God,—let us, in our hours of doubt and despondency, reassure our hope, strengthen our faith, and confirm the unconquerable will. The cause of education can not fail, unless all the laws which have heretofore governed the progress of society shall cease to operate, and Christianity shall prove to be a fable, and liberty a dream. May we all hasten on its final triumph by following the example of the Great Teacher, in doing good according to our means and opportunity; and, may each strive to deserve, at the end of life, the epitaph of one, 'in whose death mankind lost a friend, and no man got rid of an enemy.'

With renewed assurance of my gratitude for the kindness expressed in your communication, and for the honor of this present, and, with my best wishes for the individual welfare of every teacher in the State, I remain

Your friend and obedient servant,

HENRY BARNARD.

Mr. Barnard was requested by a committee of citizens from different parts of the State to sit for his portrait, which was painted by Lincoln, of Providence, and presented to the Rhode Island Historical Society.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE R. ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

Abstract of Official Records.

In December, 1844, a preliminary meeting was held at Providence, at the suggestion of Henry Barnard, State Agent of Public Schools, to consider the subject of a State organization of teachers, school officers, and friends of education. Nathan Bishop presided, and Messrs. John Kingsbury, H. Day, A. Perry, N. Bishop, and J. J. Stimpson were appointed a committee to report upon the formation of a "State Society for the promotion of Public School Education." On January 21st, 1845, a second meeting was called by the chairman of the committee, Wilkins Updike presiding, when a report was made in favor of such an association, and a discussion followed, from Messrs. H. Barnard, N. Bishop, T. C. Hartshorn, W. Gammell, T. H. Gallaudet, W. Updike, and J. S. Tourtellott. A draft of a constitution for an Association, to be styled the "Rhode Island Institute of Instruction," was presented by Mr. Barnard, and the whole matter was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. H. Barnard, N. Bishop, J. T. Sisson, J. Kingsbury, A. Bosworth, T. R. Hazard, W. Gammell, and G. King.

On the 24th of January, 1845, was held the *First Meeting* of the Institute, W. Updike in the chair. The committee reported favorably on the draft of a Constitution prepared by Mr. Barnard, which was adopted. After remarks upon "*The general interests of Education in Rhode Island*" by Messrs. H. Barnard, F. Wayland, A. Caswell, C. Farnum, Osgood, J. T. Sisson, N. Bishop, and C. G. Perry, a committee was appointed to nominate officers.

Second Meeting.—January 28th, 1845, at Providence.

An election of officers was made, and John Kingsbury chosen the first president of the Institute. The officers elected at this and the subsequent annual meetings are shown in the accompanying list (A.) of the officers of the Institute.

Prof. Gammell offered resolutions commendatory of the objects of the Institute, which were discussed by Messrs. L. Haile, J. S. Pitman, H. Day, C. Farnum, H. Barnard, N. Bishop, G. L. Dwight, and Rev. Mr. Waterman.

Third Meeting.—February 19th, 1845, at East Greenwich.

Addresses upon "*The Educational wants of Rhode Island,*" by W. Updike, and H. Barnard.

Remarks upon "*The Importance of Education,*" by S. Vernon, and J. Durfee.

Fourth Meeting.—February 28th, and March 1st and 2d, 1845, at Woonsocket.

Addresses upon "*The Condition of Schools in Rhode Island,*" by W. Updike, and H. Barnard; "*The evils of a misdirected Education,*" by H. Barnard.

Discussions upon "*School-houses; their location, construction, &c.*" by Messrs. J. B. Tallman, C. Farnum, S. S. Greene, W. A. Steere, A. Harkness, J. Kingsbury, J. D. Giddings, and H. Barnard; "*The causes of Failure in Teaching,*" by J. Kingsbury; "*Method of teaching Spelling,*" by Messrs. Barnard, Farnum, G. C. Wilson, T. Davis, and S. Bushee; "*Method of teaching Reading,*" by Messrs. Barnard, Farnum, Giddings, and others; "*Music as a branch of Education in Schools,*" by Messrs. S. W. Coggshall, Tallman, Giddings and Barnard; "*Means of securing Regularity and Punctuality of Attendance,*" by Rev. J. Boyden; "*Methods of conducting School Examinations,*" by H. Barnard.

Fifth Meeting.—June 25th and 26th, 1845, at Newport.

Addresses by Messrs. Gammell, Thayer, L. B. Smith, Brooks, Barnard, F. Brown, E. Clark, Terry, and J. S. Tourtellott.

Sixth Meeting.—September 12th, 1845, at Warren.

Discussions upon school subjects, by Messrs. Barnard, T. R. Hazard, Dr. Moore, Hathaway, J. P Tustin, and others.

Addresses upon "*The connection between Common School Education and State Prosperity*," by Prof. Gammell; "*How Parents may second the efforts of Teachers*," by Rev. T. Shepard; "*Methods of securing the regular Attendance of Pupils*," by A. Perry, followed by Messrs. Barnard, Tustin, and others.

Seventh Meeting.—September 19th and 20th, 1845, at Valley Falls.

Remarks upon "*A plan of Gradation for Schools*," by Messrs. Barnard and Bishop; "*Stability of population promoted by good Schools*," by T. M. Burgess; "*Punctuality and regularity of Attendance*," by Messrs. H. Day and J. T. Sisson.

Discussions on "*Methods of managing and disciplining Schools*," by Messrs. G. A. Willard, Crowell, J. B. Tallman, Sisson, Kingsbury, Farnum, Gay, Harkness, Giddings, Wilkinson, Benson, and T. Davis; "*Methods of Improvement of the Schools of the Village*," by Messrs. Kingsbury, Bishop, and Day.

Eighth Meeting.—September 26th and 27th, 1845, at Chepachet.

Addresses on "*Public Schools the only available means of a General Education*," by J. Kingsbury; "*The importance of Moral Education*," by Rev. Mr. Cheney; "*My experience as a Pupil and a Teacher*," by C. Farnum; "*The importance of a radical change in our System of Public Education*," by H. Barnard, followed by Messrs. Perry, D. G. Grosvenor, and Tourtellott.

Ninth Meeting.—September 30th, 1845, at Olneyville.

Address "*On Schools good enough for the Rich, and cheap enough for the Poor*," by H. Barnard.

Discussions by Messrs. Farnum, Day, and Harkness.

Remarks on "*The importance of paying respect to the Teacher's office*," by O. Angell.

Tenth Meeting.—October 4th, 1845, at Pawtuxet.

Addresses "*On the importance of gradation of Schools*," by N. Bishop and H. Barnard; On "*Uniformity of education necessary to solid equilibrium*," by Rev. Mr. Osgood.

Remarks on "*The warming of school-houses*," by Messrs. Hartshorn and Barnard.

Eleventh Meeting.—October 7th, 1845, at Fruit Hill.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, Bishop, Day, Harkness and Belden.

Twelfth Meeting.—October 10th, 1845, at Scituate.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, E. W. Baker, and Rev. H. Quimby.

Thirteenth Meeting.—October 14th, 1845, at Foster, Hemlock Village.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, Barnard, and others; on "*Town Libraries*," by H. Barnard.

Fourteenth Meeting.—October 30th, 1845, at Kingston.

Address on "*The value of a good education in a commercial point of view*," by Dr. Wayland.

Remarks on "*Educational wants and defects*," by Messrs. Kingsbury and W. S. Baker; "*The proper construction of school-houses*," by Messrs. Colgrove and Vernon; "*The means and importance of securing good teachers*," by Messrs. Goodwin, Davis, and Baker; "*The means of increasing the effectiveness of schools in the coming winter*," by H. Barnard.

Fifteenth Meeting.—December 19th and 20th, 1845, at Bristol.

Addresses upon "*Punctuality*," and other subjects, by Messrs. Kingsbury, N. B. Cook, T. Shepard, Sykes, J. Gushee, Bosworth, Bishop, and Barnard.

Discussions upon "*Methods of Discipline and Instruction.*"

Sixteenth Meeting—SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—January 15th, 1846, at Providence.

Reports from the Treasurer and Executive Committee; Election of Officers.

Remarks by Messrs. T. Shepard, W. Russell, of Boston, Dr. Wayland, Vernon, Updike, Bishop, Caswell, Barnard, and others.

Seventeenth Meeting.—January 30th and 31st, 1846, at Pawtucket.

Remarks on "*Who should be employed as Public School Teachers,*" by N. Bishop; "*The rights of children to an Education,*" by H. Day; "*The duty of Parents in regard to School Discipline,*" by Dr. Carpenter.

Discussions on "*Neatness in School-houses,*" by Messrs. G. C. Wilson, G. A. Willard, Giddings, Wickes, and Sisson; "*The classification of Schools and use of Monitors,*" by Messrs. Barnard, Giddings, Perry, Wilkinson, Benson, and Wickes; "*The value of Female Teachers,*" by Messrs. Barnard, Blodgett, Rounds, Willard, Wilkinson, and Boyden; "*The use of the Bible as a School Book,*" by Messrs. J. Boyden, Hyde, Blodgett, Rounds, Willard, Farnsworth, Wickes, Perry, and Farnum; "*Corporal Punishment,*" by Messrs. Day, Farnum, Perry, Willard, Sisson, Wilson, Rounds, Benson, and Barnard.

Addresses by Messrs. Willard, Sisson, and Barnard.

Eighteenth Meeting—THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—January 7th, 1847, at Providence.

Reports from the Treasurer and Executive Committee; Election of Officers.

Resolved, on motion of Dr. Wayland, that the Board of the Institute take measures to promote the establishment of District School Libraries through the State.

A committee was appointed to memorialize the Legislature for an appropriation for the purpose of distributing the "Journal of the R. I. Institute of Instruction" to the districts.

Remarks on "*The Improvements effected in the Schools of Rhode Island,*" by Messrs. T. H. Vail, Whipple, A. Ballou, A. J. Manchester, Baker, Bishop, and Hunter.

Nineteenth Meeting.—February 6th, 1847, at Smithfield.

Address by W. Updike.

Discussion on "*Methods of Government available in the Country,*" by Messrs. Farnum, Giddings, and Harkness.

Lesson in Elocution, by F. Russell.

Twentieth Meeting.—February 19th, 1847, at Apponaug Village.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, Updike, Baker, and Barnard.

Lecture on Elocution, by F. Russell.

Twenty-first Meeting.—February 20th, 1847, at Knightsville.

Addresses by Messrs. Barnard, Baker, Kingsbury, and Updike.

Lecture on Elocution, by F. Russell.

Drill of the pupils of W. S. Baker, in Elocution and Arithmetic.

Twenty-second Meeting.—February 27th, 1847, at Johnston.

Addresses by Messrs. Kingsbury, Harkness, Whiting, Waterman, Baker, and Updike.

Twenty-third Meeting.—March 19th, 1847, at Crampton Mills.

Address, by Mr. Whitney.

Discussions.

Exercises in Geography, Arithmetic, Singing, &c., by the scholars of several neighboring schools, by Mr. Baker.

Twenty-fourth Meeting.—September 11th, 1847, at Chepachet, on occasion of the dedication of a new school building.

Address on "*Architecture as connected with Education,*" by J. Kingsbury: "*The Advantages of a good Education to Individuals and the Community,*" by Dr. Wayland.

Remarks on "*The relations of Parents and Teachers,*" by Messrs. Bishop, Fowle, and Brown.

Twenty-fifth Meeting—FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 21st and 25th, 1848, at Providence.

Reports from the Treasurer and Executive Committee.

Remarks on "*Progress of Education in Rhode Island,*" by Messrs. Vail, Updike, Sisson, Barnard, and Bishop; "*Town Libraries and Popular Lectures,*" by Mr. Osgood; "*The duties of Parents to their Schools,*" by N. Bishop.

Address on "*The Progress and Condition of Schools in Rhode Island*," by H. Barnard.

Twenty-sixth Meeting.—At Newport.

Remarks on "*The Condition of Schools*," by Messrs. Updike, Weedon, Barnard, and Whipple.

Twenty-seventh Meeting—FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 29th, 1849, at Providence.

Report of Executive Committee; Election of Officers.

Resolved, on motion of Prof. Gammell (discussed on the two previous meetings), that Education in Rhode Island will need the fostering care of the Legislature, the continued attention of our efficient commissioner, and the hearty coöperation of all classes of citizens.

Remarks on "*The Condition and Statistics of Education in the State*," by H. Barnard; "*Female Teachers*," by Messrs. Bishop and Baker; "*The Condition of Schools*," by Messrs. Porter, Hartshorn, and Hall.

Twenty-eighth Meeting.—February 5th, 1849, at Providence.

Address on "*The Origin of the Public Schools of Providence*," by E. M. Stone.

Remarks on "*The Condition of Schools*," by Messrs. Clark, Barber, Baker, Cranston, and S. Patterson; "*The need of Evening Schools in Providence*, by E. M. Stone.

A committee appointed (Messrs. Hartshorn, Dumont, Shepard, Updike, and Harris) to prepare a statement respecting the school fund, and memorialize the people upon the importance of leaving it intact.

Voted, unanimously, that the president express to Mr. Barnard, on his resignation of the office of Commissioner of Public Schools, the high sense entertained by the Institute, of his labors in behalf of the Institute and of the State.

Twenty-ninth Meeting—SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 18th and 24th, 1850, at Providence.

Election of Officers.

Address on "*A Normal School in connection with Brown University*," by N. Bishop, with remarks by Dr. Wayland, and others.

Resolutions approving of the establishment of a State Normal School, recommending monthly meetings from October to March, with lectures, &c.

Thirtieth Meeting.—February 1st, 1850, at Providence.

Lecture on "*The Duties and Qualifications of Teachers*," by W. D. Swan, with remarks by Messrs. Kingsbury, Bishop, Mowry, and others.

Thirty-first Meeting.—March 8th, 1850, at Providence.

Address on "*Guyot's Physical Geography*," by J. Kingsbury, followed by Messrs. Perry and Goodwin.

Thirty-second Meeting.—October 18th, 1850, at Providence.

Address on "*The Brain*," by Dr. Ray.

Thirty-third Meeting.—November 1st, 1850, at Providence.

Address on "*The True Teacher*," by J. D. Philbrick.

Thirty-fourth Meeting.—January 17th, 1851, at Providence.

Address on "*The relations of Parents to their Children in regard to Education*," by N. Bishop.

Remarks on "*The Condition of the poor Children of Providence*," by various speakers.

Thirty-fifth Meeting—SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—February 9th, 1851, at Providence.

Report from the Treasurer; Officers elected.

Lecture on "*The facilities enjoyed by Rhode Island for promoting Civilization*," by Dr. Wayland.

Thirty-sixth Meeting—EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 23d, 1852, at Providence.

Election of Officers.

Address on "*The Harmony of Public Schools with our Institutions*," by Dr. Sears.

Thirty-seventh Meeting.—February 20th, 1852, at Providence.
Lecture on "*Drawing*," by Prof. Whitaker.

Thirty-eighth Meeting.—March 19th, 1852, at Providence.
Address on "*Geography*," by Prof. Guyot.

Thirty-ninth Meeting.—April 2d, 1852, at Providence.
Address on "*Teaching Arithmetic*," by D. P. Colburn.

Fortieth Meeting—NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 19th, 1853, at Providence.
Election of Officers.
Address on "*The need of Compulsory Laws for attendance at School*," by J. Bates; "*School Instruction in Manners*," by G. H. Tillinghast.

Forty-first Meeting—TENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 17th, 1854, at Providence.
Election of Officers.
Address on "*Educational Progress, and the need of a Board of Education*," by J. Kingsbury, with remarks by Messrs. S. S. Green, E. R. Potter, A. Perry, and E. M. Stone, upon a State Normal School, Moral and Physical Education, and School Examinations.
Report from G. H. Tillinghast advising the use of a text-book entitled the "Morals of Manners."
Remarks on "*Reading*," by Mr. Sumner, of the Normal School.

Forty-second Meeting—ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 24th, 25th, and 26th, 1855, at Providence.
Reports from the Treasurer and Executive Committee; Officers elected.
Address on "*The unconscious Tuition of the Teacher*," by F. D. Huntington.
Lectures on "*Methods for promoting Intellectual Culture by the Teachers*," by D. P. Colburn; "*Physical Geography*," by Prof. Guyot; "*Manner of teaching Physical Geography*," by Prof. Guyot; "*The relation of the State to Popular Education*," by Dr. Sears; "*Reading*," by Dr. Sears; "*The influence of the Earth's form upon Human Development*," by Prof. Guyot; "*The Glaziers of Switzerland*," by Prof. Guyot.
Resolutions recommending the establishment of free public evening schools in the manufacturing villages and larger towns; moved by S. Austin, and discussed by Messrs. Stone, Green, Tillinghast, and Arnold;—that in Normal Schools, instruction in the art of teaching should be the main object, and that a high standard of culture should be a pre-requisite to admission; reported by a committee, and discussed by Messrs. Perry, Vail, Willard, Nash, Greene, Stone, and Colburn;—recommending the establishment of an educational Journal, under the supervision of the Commissioner, and referring the subject to his action; reported by a committee, and discussed by Messrs. Perry and Vail; —welcoming the new Commissioner of Public Schools, Rev. Robert Allyn.

Forty-third Meeting—TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 24th and 25th, 1856, at Providence.
Election of officers; S. S. Greene elected President, J. Kingsbury declining a reëlection.
Addresses on "*The Importance of thorough Elementary Instruction*," by A. R. Pope; "*The Value of the Popular Educator to the Community*," by W. W. Hoppin; "*The varied Duties of a faithful Teacher*," by Rt. Rev. T. M. Clark; "*Educational Progress in Rhode Island*," by J. Kingsbury.
Resolutions of thanks to J. Kingsbury for his able, faithful, and long continued services.
A committee reported favorably respecting the "R. I. Schoolmaster," and a corresponding committee for that Journal was appointed.
Messrs. Leach, Allyn, and Stone were appointed to coöperate with the Legislature in obtaining facts respecting truancy and vagrancy. Discussion by Messrs. Allyn, Leach, Stone, Cook, Boyden, Grover, and others.

Report from a committee recommending to the attention of teachers a book entitled "Morals of Manners," by Miss C. M. Sedgwick.

Forty-fourth Meeting—THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 31st, 1857, at Providence.

Report from the Treasurer; Election of Officers.

Messrs. Greene and Stone appointed to solicit from the General Assembly an appropriation in favor of the "R. I. Schoolmaster."

Forty-fifth Meeting.—May 28th and 29th, 1857, at Newport.

Addresses on "*Education*," by G. H. Calvert; "*The chief Defects of Home Education*," by Rev. W. Burton; "*Mathematical Studies*," by Rev. W. Stow.

Remarks on "*The advantages of the social position of the Teacher*," by W. Burton; "*The duties of Teachers in the Government and Moral Training of Children*," by Messrs. Allyn, Colburn, Burton, and Tenney.

Discussion on "*Capacity to govern without Corporal Punishment, the highest qualification of the Teacher.*" by Messrs. Hazard, Allyn, Stow, and Burton.

Forty-sixth Meeting—FOURTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—February 6th, 1858, at Providence.

Election of Officers; Report of the Treasurer; balance on hand, $1,141.16.

Resolutions recommending the farther increase of Evening Schools, and free Public Libraries; on motion of S. Austin, seconded by Rev. E. M. Stone.

Messrs. Greene and Leach were appointed to arrange with the Commissioner for meetings of the Institute in different parts of the State.

[The Records of *six* meetings are not preserved, and all the following numbers are increased by that number.]

Fifty-third Meeting—FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—February 27th, 1859, at Providence.

Report of the Treasurer; Election of Officers.

The Commissioner of Public Schools reported meetings of the Institute during the year at North Foster, Chepachet, Crompton, Mashassuc, and two at Valley Falls.

Address on "*Education in the Home*," by Rev. W. Barber.

Fifty-fourth Meeting—SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 20th and 21st, 1860, at Providence.

Election of Officers; Report of the Treasurer.

Discussions on "*Whispering and Intercommunication among Scholars*," by Messrs. Cady, Foster, Smith, Willard, Perry, and Leach; "*Means for securing Attention in School*," by Messrs. Gammell, Foster, Ladd, Mowry, and De Munn; "*The Influence of Education upon the Community.*" by Messrs. A. H. Clapp, J. B. Chapin, Sears, Stone, and Leach; "*Written Examinations*," by Messrs. Manchester, De Munn, and Snow.

Remarks on "*Means of securing punctual and regular Attendance at School*," by A. W. Godding.

The "R. I. Schoolmaster" was made the organ of the Institute, and a Board of Editors appointed, after discussion by Messrs. Mowry, Ladd, Foster, Snow, Godding, Robbins, Perry, Stone, Kent, Pierce, and Gammell.

Statement of "*The progress of Education in Rhode Island, and of the work of the Institute*," by E. M. Stone.

Resolutions of sympathy in the loss by death of John J. Stimpson and Dana P. Colburn.

Fifty-fifth Meeting.—September 7th and 8th, 1860, at Bristol.

Lectures on "*Obstacles in the way of Intellectual Progress*," by Dr. Chapin; "*Normal Schools, their origin, history, claims, and results*," by Rev. B. G. Northrop; "*Means of obtaining a Knowledge of the English Language*," by J. Kendall; "*Vivacity in the Teacher*," by D. Goodwin; "*Physical Training*," by Dr. D. Lewis.

Discussions on "*Too great attention to Arithmetic in our Schools*," by Messrs. Cady, Kendall, De Munn, Snow, Robbins, Manchester, and Ladd; "*The Subjects of the Lectures*," by Messrs. Mowry, Pierce, Northrup, Ladd, De Munn,

Kendall, Chase, Mathewson, and Gallup; "*The interests of the R. I. Schoolmaster*," by Messrs. De Munn, Mowry, Cady, Kendall, and Willard.

Fifty-sixth Meeting.—October 12th, 1860, at East Greenwich.
Lectures by Messrs. J. M. Talbot, J. Kendall, and Dr. Lewis.

Fifty-seventh Meeting.—December 7th, 1860, at Blackstone.
Lectures by Messrs. S. S. Green, H. K. Oliver, and W. A. Mowry.

Fifty-eighth Meeting.—January 18th and 19th, 1861, at Centerville.
Lecture on "*Education*," by Rev. A. Gardener.
Discussions on "*Teaching Arithmetic; its defects, and the better way*," by Messrs. De Munn, Kendall, and Manchester; "*Education of Young Children*," by J. Kendall: "*Usefulness of Public Examinations*," by Messrs. De Munn, Manchester, Ladd, Willard, Snow, Kistler, Spaulding, and Kendall.

Fifty-ninth Meeting—SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 25th and 26th, 1861, at Providence.
Report of the Treasurer; Election of Officers, and of Board of Editors for the "R. I. Schoolmaster."
Lectures on "*The relation of Mental Philosophy to Education*," by B. G. Northrop; "*The Sea*," by Rev. L. Swain.
Discussion on "*The mechanical performance of Arithmetical Operations*," by Messrs. Willard, Stone, Leach, Green, Mowry, Ladd, Eastman, Pierce, Snow, Manchester, De Munn, Austin, and Kendall.

Sixtieth Meeting.—March 1st and 2d, 1861, at South Kingston.
Lectures on "*Unwritten History*," by Rev. A. Woodbury; "*Writing*," by .S A. Potter.
Discussions on "*Means of securing punctual and constant attendance at School*," by Messrs. Gardener, Tefft, Patten, De Munn, and Phelps; "*Reading*," by Messrs. Grosvenor, Briggs, Thurber, Leach, Potter, De Munn, Snow, Tefft, Gardener, and Tucker; "*The best method of Teaching Arithmetic*," by Messrs. Tefft, Snow, and De Munn.

Sixty-first Meeting.—November 22d and 23d, 1861, at Carolina Mills.
Lectures on "*Education*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*The most important requisites in Teaching*," by J. J. Ladd; "*Class Recitations*," by J. Kendall.
Discussion on "*The present Duties of Teachers to their Country*," by Messrs. Greene, Stanton, Cady, Tillinghast, Kendall, Tefft, Seamans, Bailey, De Munn, and Ladd.
Resolved that contributions of one cent from each scholar be solicited, for the aid of wounded soldiers.

Sixty-second Meeting.—December 20th and 21st, 1861, at Peacedale.
Lectures on "*The relation of the Mind to the Body*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*Teaching Letters and Spelling*," by J. Kendall.
Discussions on "*Guarding Children against Temptation, or teaching them to resist it*," by Messrs. Tefft, Maryot, M. S. Greene, Rousmaniere, Miller, Gorton, Clark, and Coon; "*Difficulties in Teaching Geography*," by Messrs. Tefft, Green, Tillinghast, Stanton, and others; "*Method of illustrating Decimal Fractions*," by Messrs. Tefft, Davis, Stanton, Tillinghast, Peckham, Bentley, Green, and others; "*Good Order in Schools*," by Messrs. Mowry, Stanton, Briggs, Tillinghast, Kenneth, and Coon; "*Recitations in Reading*," by Messrs. Thurber, Davis, Tefft, Briggs, Miner, and Coon. "*Securing prompt attendance at School*," by Messrs. Clark, Kendall, Stanton, and Mowry.
Remarks on "*The duty of Teachers to their Country*," by W. A. Mowry.

Sixty-third Meeting.—January 4th and 5th, 1862, at Chepachet.
Lectures on "*Principles of true Education, and the difficulties which oppose it*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*Arithmetic and its Abbreviations*," by N. W. De Munn; "*Book-keeping in Common Schools*," by S. A. Potter.
Discussions on "*The best Method of Teaching Writing and Spelling*," "*The connection of Oral and Written Arithmetic*," "*How far English Composition should be taught*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Chase. Brown, Peckham, Mowry, and others; "*The control of Teachers over their Pupils out of School*."

Sixty-fourth Meeting—EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 31st, and February 1st, 1862, at Providence.

Reports of Treasurer and Recording Secretary; Election of Officers.

Lectures on "*The Comforts and Pleasures of School-keeping*," by Rev. L. Whiting; "*Culture of the Voice*," by S. Monroe; "*English History*," by G. Palmer.

Discussion on "*Good Discipline in School, and how maintained*," by Messrs. Willard, Cady, Mowry, Ladd, G. T. Day, and J. M. Talcott.

Recitations in "*Arithmetic*," conducted by N. W. De Munn; in "*English Grammar*," conducted by A. J. Manchester.

Appointment of a permanent committee to conduct the publication of the "R. I. Schoolmaster."

Resolution, moved by E. M. Stone, recommending an increase of evening schools.

Sixty-fifth Meeting.—February 28th and March 1st, 1862, at Centerville, (Warwick.)

Lectures on "*Writing*," by S. A. Potter; "*The Comforts and Pleasures of School-keeping*," by L. Whiting; "*Spelling*," by J. Kendall; "*The study of the U. S. Constitution in our Schools*," by W. A. Mowry.

Discussion on "*The Teacher's sphere of Usefulness*," by Messrs. Husted, Leader, Brayton, and Cooke.

Recitations in "*English History*," conducted by D. R. Adams; "*The Art of Map-drawing*," conducted by S. A. Briggs.

Sixty-sixth Meeting.—April 11th and 12th, 1862, at Wickford.

Lecture on "*The Teacher; his Works and his Rewards*," by A. J. Manchester.

Discussions on "*The Defects in our Public Schools*," by Messrs. Allen, Chadsey, Slocum, Potter, and others; "*The relative duties of Parents, Teachers, and Pupils*," by Messrs. Ladd, and De Munn; "*Reading*," by Messrs. Manchester and De Munn; "*The present Duties of Teachers to their Country*," by Messrs. Snow, Slocum, and others.

Remarks on "*Penmanship*," by S. A. Potter.

Exercises in "*Reading*," conducted by F. B. Snow.

Sixty-seventh Meeting.—November 21st and 22d, 1862, at Westerly.

Lectures on "*The Qualifications of the Teacher*, by J. Kendall; "*Education out of School*," by Rev. H. Lincoln.

Discussions on "*The Responsibility of Teachers for the Punctuality and Attendance of Scholars*," by Messrs. Kendall, Foster, Griswold, Woodbridge, Tefft, Green, and Whitman; "*Means of making R. Island pupils fair Spellers*," by Messrs. Kendall, Griswold, and Greene; "*Educating a Community to a right Appreciation of good Teachers and Schools*, by Messrs. Tefft, Foster, and Greene; "*The best Method of presenting Decimals and Percentage*," by Messrs. De Munn, Kendall, Foster, Ladd, Greene, and others; "*Elevating the Standard of Schools, and exciting Pupils to greater Diligence*," by Messrs. Kendall and Kenyon.

Sixty-eighth Meeting.—December 5th and 6th, 1862, at Wickford.

Lectures on "*Object Lessons*," by J. Kendall; "*Nature's Hieroglyphs*," by Rev. C. H. Fay.

Discussions on "*The Dependence of Teachers upon Text-books*; "*The Responsibility of Teachers for the lack of a delicate moral tone in their Pupils*," by Messrs. Snow, Kendall, and others.

Sixty-ninth Meeting.—December 19th and 20th, 1862, at Pawtucket.

Lectures on "*The Progress of Public Schools*," by Rev. G Taft; "*Book-keeping*," by S. A. Potter; "*The Duties of Parent Citizens to their Public Schools*," by H. Rousmaniere; "*The Scholar and his Country*," by Rt. Rev. T. M. Clark.

Poem on "*Nature and its Revelations*," by W. M. Rodman.

Class exercises in "*Spelling*," conducted by J. Kendall, with remarks by Messrs. Snow, Willard, De Munn, and others; "*Reading*," conducted by F. B. Snow.

Discussion on "*The moral Influence of Teachers upon their Pupils in and out of School*," by Messrs. Willard, Mowry, Gammell, Ladd, and others.

Seventieth Meeting.—January 9th and 10th, 1863, at Newton, (Portsmouth.)

Lectures on "*The benefits of School Libraries,*" by Rev. S. D. Coggshall; "*The true Relations of School and Home, Teacher and Parent,*" by T. W. Bicknell; "*The Cultivation of a Taste for the Beauties of Nature,*" by I. F. Cady.

Discussions on "*School Libraries,*" by Messrs. Kendall, Rousmaniere, Coggshall, and Arnold; "*The Assignment of Lessons to be studied at Home,*" by Messrs. Kendall, Arnold, Gifford, and others; "*Preventing Whispering and Motion of the Lips while Studying,*" by S. D. Coggshall; "*The Importance of the Coöperation of Parents,*" by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Cady, Belden, and Kendall; "*The Assumption of Unwarranted Authority by Teachers,*" by Messrs. Bicknell, Cady, and Belden; "*Method of commencing the Study of Geography,*" by Messrs. Cady, Kendall, Chapman, and others.

Seventy-first Meeting—NINETEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 30th and 31st, 1863, at Providence.

Report of the Treasurer; total amount of funds, $1,237.61. Election of Officers.

Lectures on "*English Grammar,*" by Prof. S. S. Greene; "*The Importance and Mode of training the Senses,*" by Rev. B. G. Northrop; "*Physical Geography,*" by B. Harrison.

Discussions on "*The Responsibility of the Teacher for the Moral Conduct of his Pupils,*" by Messrs. Cady and De Munn; "*English Grammar.*" by Messrs. Cady, Willard, Tefft, Belden, Manchester, De Munn, and Northrop; "*The necessity of Sustaining the 'R. I. Schoolmaster,'*" by Messrs. Matteson, Northrop, and Ladd.

Class exercises in "*Object Teaching,*" conducted by N. A. Calkins; "*Spelling and Reading,*" by a class of colored children.

Messrs. Ladd and De Munn appointed to memorialize the Legislature for an act of incorporation.

Seventy-second Meeting.—February 19th and 20th, 1863, at Ashaway.

Lectures on "*The Teacher and his Work,*" by J. J. Ladd; "*The Duties of Parents and the Public in regard to Schools,*" by H. Rousmaniere; "*School Tactics,*" by J. Kendall.

Discussions on "*Methods of securing greater Punctuality in Schools,*" by Messrs. Langworthy, Saunders, Greene, Kenneth, Maryott, Davis, Ladd, Collins, Stanton, Vincent, Morton, Coon, Rev. J. Clark, Rev. H. Clark, and Lewis; "*The use of Text-books in Recitations,*" by Messrs. Ladd and Kendall.

Class exercises in "*Bassini's Method of Teaching Music,*" conducted by J. M. Stillman.

Seventy-third Meeting.—March 6th and 7th, 1863, at Kingston.

Lectures on "*The Scale on which the Universe is built,*" by J. Kendall; "*Mental Science,*" by H. Rousmaniere.

Poem on "*The Golden Era.*" by A. J. Foster.

Discussion on "*The use of Text-books in Recitations,*" by Messrs. Kendall, Eastman, Greene, Rousmaniere, Tefft, and others.

Seventy-fourth Meeting.————, at River Point.

Lectures on "*English Grammar,*" by A. A. Gamwell; "————," by Rev. J. M. H. Dow.

Discussions on "*The best Method of teaching Geography,*" by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Aldrich, Fuller, Harrison, Seamans, Eldridge, and Gallup; "*The most prominent Faults in our Common Schools,*" by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Matteson, Eastman, Willard, Gamwell, Spaulding, and Kent.

Remarks on "*Penmanship,*" by B. Harrison.

Seventy-fifth Meeting.—November 24th and 25th, 1863, at Westerly.

Lectures on "*The Study of the English Language,*" by W. A. Mowry; "*Duties of Parents to the School,*" by Dr. J. B. Chapin; "*Entrance to the Public High Schools should be determined by Scholarship, ascertained by Competitive Examination,*" by Hon. H. Barnard.

Discussions on "*The Extent to which Teachers should Assist their Pupils,*" by Messrs. Foster, Greene, Mowry, Chapin, and others; "*The greatest Evil in our Schools, and its remedy,*" by Messrs. Ladd, Ames, Mowry, and others.

School Reports were given by Messrs. Greene, Woodbridge, Coon, Tillinghast, Inman, Collins, Foster, Kenyon, Robbins, and Mowry.

Exercises in Gymnastics, by Messrs Trine and Wood.

Seventy-sixth Meeting.—December 11th and 12th, 1863, at North Scituate.

Lectures on "*The Good Teacher*," by Rev. Lyman Whiting; "*Vitality in the School-room*," by John J. Ladd.

Discussions on "*The extent and mode of the Teacher's help to his pupils in Mathematics*;" "*The use of the Blackboard in English Grammar*;" "*Methods of Teaching Spelling*;" "*Proper and improper penalties for defective recitations or bad conduct*;" "*Topical Recitations.*"

Seventy-seventh Meeting.—January 15th and 16th, 1864, at Centerville.

Lectures on "*The Obstacles in the way of successful Teaching*," by J. B. Chapin; "*The Teacher's Motives and Difficulties.*" by A. J. Manchester.

Discussions on "*The Schools of Rhode Island compared with those of twenty years ago*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Husted, Adams, Seamans, Stone, and Matteson; "*The Teaching of Music in our Schools*," by Messrs. Rousmaniere, Gallup, Matteson, Ladd, Spencer, Berry, and Kent; "*The Obstacles to the success of our Schools*," by Messrs. Ladd, Spaulding, Rousmaniere, and Mowry.

Reports from Schools, by Messrs. Kent, Berry, Gallup, Bates, Manchester, Edwards, Eastman, Tefft, Robbins, Spaulding, and Mowry.

Exercises in Gymnastics, by Dr. Wood.

Remarks eulogistic of the lamented D. P. Colburn, by Messrs. Ladd, Mowry, and Austin.

Seventy-eighth Meeting—TWENTIETH ANNUAL MEETING.—January 29th and 30th, 1864, at Providence.

Election of Officers.

Lectures on "*Morning Glories*," by J. Kendall; "*Object Teaching*," by I. F. Cady; "*The Study of History*," by Rev. B. Sears; "*The Relation of the Scholar to the Rebellion*," by J. T. Edwards; "*Self Education*," by J. D. Philbrick; "*Physical Geography*," by Prof. S. Tenney; "*The Relations of Parents to the School*," by T. W. Bicknell.

Report on the history and conduct of the "R. I. Schoolmaster" during the year, by N. W. De Munn.

Seventy-ninth Meeting.—February 12th and 13th, 1864, at Woonsocket.

Lectures on "*Familiar Topics*," by J. Kendall; "*Supervision of School*," by Rev. B. S. Northrup; "*Relation of the Scholar to the Rebellion*," by J. T. Edwards; "*Education and Physical Interests*," by Hon. J. P. Chapin.

Discussions on "*Parental Interest in Schools*;" "*Object Teaching as a system*;" "*Physical Culture*;" "*Defects in Public Schools.*"

Eightieth Meeting.—June 3d and 4th, 1864, at Harrisville.

Lectures on "*The Education of the Freedmen*," by Rev. A. Root; "*Reading*," by F. B. Snow; "*Primary Geography*," by T. W. Bicknell; "*The Educational Improvements of twenty-five years*," by I. F. Cady.

Discussions on "*The best means of securing Regular Attendance at School*," by Messrs. Steere, Metcalf, and Webb; "*The Evils of a frequent change of Teachers, and the remedy*," by Messrs. Cady, Bicknell, and Mowry; "*Method of Teaching Writing in Common Schools*," by Messrs. Webb, Steere, and others; "*Teaching beginners in Arithmetic the Process before the Reasoning*," by Messrs. Snow and Mowry; "*Requiring Pupils to give Information of Offenses*," by Messrs. Mowry, Cady, Webb, Steere, and others.

(A.)

OFFICERS OF THE RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE.

PRESIDENTS.—John Kingsbury, 1845–1855. S. S. Greene, 1856–1859. J. J. Ladd, 1860–1863. W. A. Mowry, 1864.

VICE PRESIDENTS.—W. Updike, 1845, 1846. A. Ballou, 1845, 1849. C. G. Perry, 1846, 1847. T. Shepard, 1846, 1847, 1850–1859. J. J. Kelton, 1846–1849. E. R. Potter, 1847–1859. J. S. Tourtellott, 1847. A. H. Dumont, 1848–1859. J. W. Cooke, 1848, 1849. J. Boyden, Jr., 1850–1855, 1858, 1859, 1862–1864. E. Harris, 1850–1859. R. Allyn, 1855–1857. T. H. Vail, 1856, 1857. T. R. Hazard, 1856–1859. S. A. Crane, 1856–1859. J. Kingsbury, 1858, 1859. A. A. Gamwell, 1860–1864. W. A. Mowry, 1860, 1862, 1863. S. Austin, 1860–1864. I. F. Cady, 1860, 1861, 1864. H. R. Pierce, 1860, 1861. J. Kendall, 1861. N. W. De Munn, 1861. G. A. Willard, 1861–1864. B. V. Gallup, 1861, 1864. J. Kendall, 1862–1864. J. H. Tefft, 1862–1864. D. R. Adams, 1863, 1864. J. M. Ross, 1864. B. F. Hayes, 1864.

CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES.—N. Bishop, 1845–1847. A. Perry, 1848–1850. Z. Grover, 1851–1857. A. W. Godding, 1858–1863.

RECORDING SECRETARIES.—J. D. Giddings, 1845–1847. C. T. Keith, 1848, 1849. C. Farnum, 1850. A. A. Gamwell, 1851–1853. A. W. Godding, 1854–1857. E. H. Magill, 1858, 1859. F. B. Snow, 1860, 1861. A. C. Robbins, 1862–1864.

TREASURERS.—T. C. Hartshorn, 1845–1851. A. Perry, 1853–1855. C. T. Keith, 1856–1861. N. W. De Munn, 1862, 1863.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, or DIRECTORS.—W. Gammell, 1845–1859. J. T. Sisson, 1845, 1846, 1854. J. B. Tallman, 1845–1847. L. W. Ballou, 1845, 1846. S. Greene, 1845, 1846. J. S. Tourtellott, 1846, 1848–1854. A. Perry, 1846, 1858–1861. C. Farnum, 1846–1849. G. C. Wilson, 1846–1856. W. S. Baker, 1846, 1848, 1849. T. R. Hazard, 1846–1855. J. Boyden, Jr., 1847, 1856, 1857. N. Bishop, 1848–1851. C. G. Perry, 1848–1854. T. H. Vail, 1848–1855. S. Patterson, 1848–1859. S. Austin, 1848–1851, 1853–1859. T. Shepard, 1848, 1849. J. Bushee, 1848–1854. T. T. Hazard, 1851–1853. S. S. Greene, 1852–1855. A. A. Gamwell, 1854–1859. G. W. Quereau, 1855–1859. G. A. Willard, 1855–1859. E. Gray, Jr., 1855–1857. N. B. Cooke, 1855–1860. J. H. Willard, 1855–1859. O. F. Otis, 1855–1859. D. P. Colburn, 1855–1859. W. H. Farrar, 1855, 1856. E. H. Magill, 1856, 1857. J. Kingsbury, 1856, 1857. D. Leach, 1856–1859. T. G. Potter, 1856–1859. C. C. Beaman, 1857. E. M. Stone, 1857–1863. E. Grant, 1857. L. A. Wheelock, 1858, 1859. W. G. Crosby 1858, 1859. J. B. Breed, 1858, 1859. M. Lyon, 1858, 1859. A. J. Manchester, 1860, 1861. M. S. Greene, 1860–1863. W. A. Mowry, 1861. W. A. Eastman, 1861–1863. I. F. Cady, 1861, 1863. H. M. Rice, 1862, 1863. F. B. Snow, 1862, 1863. T. Davis, 1862, 1863. J. T. Edwards, 1863. T. W. Bicknell, 1863.

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.

WE hoped to have accompanied the foregoing account of the RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, the earliest formed, and altogether the most comprehensive and active in its plans of operation, of the State Teachers' and Educational Associations, with brief sketches of the educational activity of its Presidents, by the same hand which prepared the account. But in this we are disappointed.

Of the first President (1845–1856), JOHN KINGSBURY, LL. D., a memoir and portrait will be found in the first volume of this Journal, and in "*Barnard's Educational Biography—American Teachers and Educators*, Vol. I."

Of the second President (1857–1858), Prof. S. S. GREENE, a brief memoir will be found in connection with the proceedings of the National Teachers' Association in 1864, of which he was elected President for the ensuing year.

JOHN J. LADD, the third President (1859–1863), was born in Newbury, Vt., May 11th, 1828, and graduated at Dartmouth College, in 1852. After serving one year as assistant teacher in Black River Academy, Ludlow, Vt., and five years as principal of the Warner Academy, Woburn, Mass., he was elected to the charge of the Classical Department of the Public High School in Providence, in 1859, where he continued till January, 1864, when he opened with Mr. W. Mowry, a Select School in the same city—both he and Mr. Mowry retiring from the service of the Public Schools on account of a reduction in salary.

WILLIAM A. MOWRY was born in Uxbridge, Mass., August 13th, 1829, and received his early education in the District School and Academy of his native town. For four years from 1842–3 he earned his own living in various fields of juvenile labor, until 1848 when he commenced "school-keeping," and obtaining a college education, for which he made a thorough preparation in Phillips Academy, Andover. He entered Brown University in 1854, but left at the close of his second year on account of impaired health. In 1857 he assumed the publication and editorship of the "R. I. Schoolmaster" (started by Rev. Robert Allyn, School Commissioner, in 1855,) and having relieved it from debt and obtained a supporting list of subscribers, he transferred its management to the R. I. Institute. In 1858 he became principal of the English department of the Providence Public High School, in which he labored until February, 1864, when he retired with Mr. Ladd, and opened a private High School for boys.

Any notice, however brief, of the office-bearers and active members of the Institute, would be greatly deficient which should not make honorable and grateful mention of WILLIAM S. BAKER, to whose services as Agent of the Executive Committee in continuation of the same missionary work he had done for the Washington County Teachers' Association, and in coöperation with the Commissioner of Public Schools, the Institute and the State are under more obligations than words, however strong, can express. Of Mr. Baker's manifold, disinterested, indefatigable, and useful career, as teacher of Public Schools, and as an itinerating lecturer on self and school education, we hope to be at liberty to speak at large hereafter. To the thousands of teachers and young people in whom he inspired the spirit of self improvement we dedicate the portrait which accompanies this number of the Journal, and which no one will be more surprised to see than himself.

XIII. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1864.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH SESSION, OR FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING, held at Ogdensburg, N. Y., August 10th, 11th, and 12th, 1864.

FIRST DAY, *Wednesday, August* 10, 1864.

THE ASSOCIATION met in Eagle Hall and was called to order at 10 o'clock, A. M., by the President, W. H. WELLS, of Chicago.

The session was opened with prayer by Rev. L. M. Miller, of Ogdensburg, followed by a song of welcome, composed for the occasion, and sung by the Ogdensburg Musical Association and Normal Music School, under the direction of Prof. H. S. Perkins.

Col. R. W. JUDSON, of the Board of Education of Ogdensburg, in behalf of the Board and citizens, welcomed the Association in an eloquent address, in which he referred to the importance of education, and to the duty of the Association in the present condition of the country, with the hope that the nation would soon be again at peace, united and ready to advance the interests which the Association has at heart.

The President briefly and pertinently responded.

A communication was received from a committee of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, welcoming the National Association to the State, expressing a hearty sympathy in its plans and purposes, and pledging coöperation in carrying forward the reforms it has instituted.

The communication was, by previous rule, placed on file, and the correspondence recorded.

The Annual Address of the President then followed; the exercises of the afternoon were announced, and the article of the Constitution relating to membership was read.

On motion of Dr. J. N. MCJILTON that a committee be appointed to whom the communication of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association be referred,

The Chair appointed Messrs. J. N. MCJILTON, J. W. BULKLEY, and D. B. HAGAR.

On motion of Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK, Mr. E. DANFORTH, of Troy, was appointed Assistant Secretary, to record the names of members present. Mr. S. H. WHITE was also, on motion, appointed to act as Treasurer, *pro tem.*

Adjourned to meet at 2 1-2 o'clock, P. M.

Afternoon Session.

The Association met at 2 1-2 o'clock, President WELLS in the chair.

Announcement of arrangements for return tickets was made by the President.

The Glee Club of the Ogdensburg Musical Association favored the Association with a song.

On motion of Dr. McJILTON that a committee be appointed on the President's Address,

The Chair appointed Messrs. J. N. McJILTON, S. S. GREENE, and J. W. BULKLEY.

Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK then read a paper prepared by Rev. Dr. HILL, of Harvard University—Subject: *Should a Teacher or Professor of Didactics be appointed in every principal College?*

The reading of the paper was followed by a discussion of the question, by Messrs. J. W. BULKLEY, Dr. SEARS, CHARLES DAVIES, and Prof. J. B. THOMSON.

The Committee on Membership presented a list of names, and the persons reported were duly elected members.

After a recess of five minutes,

Dr. McJILTON, from the Committee on the President's Address, recommended a postponement of its discussion, and that the discussion of Dr. HILL'S paper be continued.

The discussion of Dr. HILL'S paper was accordingly resumed, and carried on by Messrs. DAVIES, THOMSON, McJILTON, PHILBRICK, HAGAR, and GREENE, when further discussion was, on motion, postponed.

Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK moved an amendment to the constitution, requiring that the regular meetings of the Association shall be biennial, instead of annual.

The proposed amendment was discussed by Messrs. McJILTON, PHILBRICK, HAGAR, THOMSON, W. N. BARRINGER, W. H. WELLS, J. S. ADAMS and DRURY.

Adjourned to 7½ P. M.

Evening Session.

On motion, an informal ballot was taken upon the proposed amendment to the constitution, resulting in a vote of eight yeas to eleven nays; on further motion, the subject was postponed for one year.

On motion, a committee for the nomination of officers was appointed by the Chair, consisting of Messrs. D. N. CAMP, S. S. GREENE, J. D. PHILBRICK, D. F. WELLS, J. W. BULKLEY, J. F. EBERHART, J. N. McJILTON, C. S. PENNELL, and Z. RICHARDS.

A song was given by the Ogdensburg Musical Association.

Dr. J. N. McJILTON made a report on, *A System of Free Schools.*

After another song, the Association adjourned.

SECOND DAY, *August* 11.—*Morning Session.*

The Association met at 9 o'clock, and was opened by prayer by Rev. Dr. Sears, of Providence.

On motion of Mr. Z. RICHARDS, an invitation was given to educational gentlemen present, from Canada and elsewhere, to sit with the Association and participate in its deliberations.

On motion of Mr. E. DANFORTH, all lady teachers present were elected honorary members and requested to signify their acceptance by recording their names.

On motion, the remarks of members taking part in discussions were limited to five minutes each.

The following resolution was offered by Mr. J. S. ADAMS, and adopted:

Resolved, That the State Educational Associations of the various States in the Union are hereby respectfully invited, at their various annual meetings, to elect one or more delegates as their representatives to this, the National Teachers' Association.

After music by the juvenile class of the Normal Music School, under the di-

rection of Prof. Perkins, he was invited to give with his class, at the opening of the afternoon session, an exhibition of his method of instruction in vocal music.

The Association then proceeded to the consideration of the topics recommended by the committee to whom was referred the President's Address, and after a discussion of the subject of *Sectional Divisions*, by Mr. S. S. GREENE, it was voted not to be desirable to resolve the Association into sectional meetings.

A discussion followed upon *Practical Modes of Teaching the English Language*, which was participated in by Messrs. GREENE, R. CRUIKSHANK, D. F. WELLS, J. B. MCGUNN, W. N. BARRINGER, C. S. PENNELL, W. A. MOWRY, and J. W. BULKLEY, when, on motion, the subject was laid upon the table.

The order of the day was then taken up—*What Improvements need to be introduced in Methods of Teaching the Ancient Languages?*—which was discussed by Messrs. Prof. HARKNESS, Dr. SEARS, J. W. MCLAWRY, E. J. HAMILTON, C. DAVIES, E. D. WELLER, and M. LYON.

On motion of Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK, the subject was laid upon the table, and a recess of five minutes was taken.

Song by the Messrs. Perkins.

Dr. H. B. WILBUR, of Syracuse, delivered a lecture upon *Object Teaching*.

Several notices were given, and the Association adjourned to 2½, P. M.

Afternoon Session.

The Association opened at 2 1-2 o'clock, when Prof. PERKINS, of the Normal Music School, with a class of pupils, proceeded to illustrate briefly his method of teaching vocal music.

The Committee on Nomination of officers reported, and the Association proceeded to an election. The officers nominated by the committee, and as given at the close of this report, were unanimously elected.

The report of the Treasurer was received and accepted.

Mr. J. CRUIKSHANK, of Albany, of the Committee on Publication, stated that copies of the proceedings were on hand and for sale for the benefit of the Association.

Mr. J. S. ADAMS, offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the indebtedness of the Association should be immediately liquidated; that in order to secure this result members of the Association who are willing to be assessed equally to an amount not exceeding $5.00 each, for the purpose of paying all the debts now existing against the Association, be requested to give in their names to the Secretary, and that an opportunity be now given for the reception of names.

On motion of Mr. HAGAR, the Treasurer was directed to inform absent members of the amount of their dues, and also of the present financial condition of the Association, and to solicit subscriptions to defray its expenses.

An opportunity having been given for subscriptions to be made, the order of the day was postponed for the discussion upon the subject of the lecture of Dr. WILBUR. On motion of Prof. DAVIES, the rule limiting each speaker to five minutes was suspended in favor of Mr. SHELDON, of Oswego, and a discussion followed, by Messrs. SHELDON, WILBUR, MCGUNN, CRUIKSHANK, BARRINGER, Dr. B. SEARS, PHILBRICK, and WELLER, of Oswego.

Mr. J. CRUIKSHANK moved the following resolution:

Resolved, That the new Board of Directors be requested, in arranging for the

exercises of the next session, to visit the schools under the charge of the Oswego Board of Education, either by a committee of their number or of such persons as they may select, such committee to report to this Association at its next annual meeting, upon the system and method of primary instruction practiced therein.

Mr. J. B. THOMSON moved to amend by inserting "and elementary schools elsewhere," and the resolution as thus amended was adopted.

A communication was received from Col. JUDSON, inviting the Association to visit the school buildings under the control of the Board of Education of Ogdensburg. The invitation was accepted, and Messrs. PHILBRICK, PENNELL, and T. F. THICHSTUN were appointed a committee to visit the schools.

Mr. J. W. BULKLEY read a paper upon *Teachers' Associations.*

Adjourned to 8, P. M.

Evening Session.

On motion, a committee on resolutions was appointed, consisting of Messrs. DANFORTH, HAGAR, and EBERHART.

Mr. R. ALEXANDER, delegate from the Teachers' Association of Canada West, by special request, gave a detailed statement of facts and statistics showing the working and progress of educational institutions in Canada.

Song by the Musical Association. Announcement of excursions down the St. Lawrence, by Messrs. SHELDON and DANFORTH. Election of new members.

Hon. SAMUEL P. BATES, of Pennsylvania, delivered an address on *Liberal Education.*

Song, by a quartette, under the direction of Prof. Perkins.

Rev. L. M. MILLER offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Whereas, The *study* of music as a science disciplines the mind, assists to strengthen the memory, and quickens the perceptive and reasoning faculties,

And whereas, The *practice* of vocal music is a pleasant, enlivening, and healthful exercise and tends to cultivate the voice for speaking and reading, as well as for singing, therefore

Resolved, That vocal music ought to be taught by competent teachers in all of our public schools.

Singing of *The Star-Spangled Banner.* Adjourned.

THIRD DAY, *August* 12.—*Morning Session.*

The Association was called to order by Vice-President D. F. WELLS, and opened by prayer by Rev. Prof. BRUSH, of Iowa.

Song by the Glee Club of the Normal Music School.

After several business announcements, Mr. SIMEON BARROWS, of Des Moines, Iowa, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair to recommend, at the next meeting of the Association, a catalogue of books for District School Libraries; said books to be selected with reference to the general wants of parents, youth, and children, to be free from sectarianism, from all bitter party spirit, and everything exceptionable in point of moral influence, and to be arranged in separate lists so that they can be introduced into small districts gradually.

The resolution was adopted, after discussion by Messrs. BARROWS and MCGUNN in favor, and by Messrs. DANFORTH, R. CRUIKSHANK, and J. CRUIKSHANK in opposition, and the following committee appointed: Messrs. Prof. WOOD, of Brooklyn, N. Y., S. S. GREENE, S. BARROWS, S. P. BATES, and J. S. ADAMS.

On motion of Hon. H. BARNARD, of Hartford, and by unanimous consent of the Association, Mr. R. CRUIKSHANK explained the advantages of an improved school desk.

Prof. S. H. WHITE read an essay entitled *A National Bureau of Education* —and offered the following resolutions:

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Association, the educational interests of the country would be greatly advanced by the establishment of a National Bureau of Education.

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed, whose duty it shall be to secure, if possible, the establishment of such an agency at Washington during the next session of Congress; and also to report the results of their action at the next meeting of this Association, with their views upon the subject of "A National Board of Education and the appointment of a Secretary of Public Instruction."

Mr. Z. RICHARDS moved their adoption, and after a discussion by Messrs. RICHARDS and BARNARD, they were adopted, and Messrs. BARNARD, RICHARDS, and WHITE were appointed the committee.

A song from the class under Prof. Perkins was followed by a recess of five minutes.

Mr. Z. RICHARDS offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That this Association, in consideration of the delegation from the Teachers' Association of Canada West, would reciprocate their kind greetings and their desires to promote a fellow-feeling and sympathy between the governments, by the appointment of delegates to their next annual meeting.

Hon. HENRY BARNARD addressed the Association upon the following subject: *Competitive Examinations applied to appointments in the Public Service.*

A discussion upon the subject followed, by Messrs. SHELDON, MASON, of N.Y., WALTON, of Lawrence, BARNARD, DAVIES, R. CRUIKSHANK, BARROWS, and PENNELL,—and Mr. BARNARD was requested to furnish to the committee, his address, for publication. Adjourned to 2½, P. M.

Afternoon Session.

Called to order by Mr. D. F. WELLS, Vice-President, in the Chair.

Letters were read from several members not able to be present. New members admitted, on motion of Mr. J. CRUIKSHANK.

Mr. HAGAR, from the Committee on Delegates, submitted the following report:

The committee to whom were referred the communication from the New York State Teachers' Association, and the credentials of the delegates from the State Association of Minnesota, and the Province of Canada West, beg leave to offer the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we hereby express our sincere gratitude to the members of the New York State Teachers' Association for the hearty greeting they have extended to the National Teachers' Association, and that we, with a strong grasp, accept the right hand of fellowship so generously proffered us, and bid them a prayerful "God speed" in the noble work they have been doing so long and so well.

Resolved, That we have welcomed with pleasure the delegate from the State Association of Minnesota, and that we gratefully appreciate this kind recognition of the importance of our Association.

Resolved, That while as a national body we can know no East and no West, we cheerfully recognize a Canada West, especially in the great courtesy displayed by its Teachers' Association, in voluntarily sending its welcome delegate to this convention; and that we, fully appreciating the honor thus conferred upon us, present to the members of that Association our warmest thanks and our hearfelt wishes for their continued prosperity.

The report was accepted and the resolutions adopted.

On motion of Mr. BARNARD, the Committee on Publication were authorized to include an abstract of the proceedings of the several State Associations.

The Chair announced the following Committee on Object Teaching: Messrs.

W. H. WELLS, Rev. B. SEARS, J. D. PHILBRICK, J. L. PICKARD, of Chicago, D. N. CAMP, R. EDWARDS, of Illinois, and C. S. PENNELL.

The following were appointed as delegates to the Association of Canada West: Messrs. E. A. SHELDON, J. S. ADAMS, and J. M. B. SILL, of Detroit.

On motion, the reports on the condition of education in the several states, are limited to five minutes each.

Upon call of the States, the following gentlemen responded: for New York, J. CRUIKSHANK; Illinois, J. F. EBERHART; New Hampshire, C. P. OTIS; District of Columbia, Z. RICHARDS; Indiana, Prof H. H. YOUNG; Connecticut, Prof. D. N. CAMP; Iowa, Pres. BRUSH and W. BARROWS; Pennsylvania, Rev. R. CRUIKSHANK; Rhode Island, Dr. B. SEARS; Massachusetts, D. B. HAGAR; Louisiana, Mr. BROWN; Wisconsin, Mr. COLBY; Missouri, C. S. PENNELL.

Mr. MASON, of New York, made some remarks on *Teachers' Sore Throat, and the method of Cure.*

Mr. PENNELL, of the Committee to visit the Ogdensburg Schools, reported that the Committee were pleased with the neatness and comfort of the buildings, and with the deep interest in public education apparent in the village.

Rev. L. M. MILLER and Hon. JOHN FINE were elected honorary members.

Mr. DANFORTH, of the Committee on Resolutions, reported the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, It is eminently proper that we, the members of the National Teachers' Association, at the close of its sixth annual session, should give formal expression to the heartfelt gratitude which we entertain toward all those to whose generous effort and kind consideration is so richly due that large measure of success which has characterized the present meeting, therefore

Resolved, That our warmest thanks be, and they are hereby tendered to the citizens of Ogdensburg, for the warm greeting and most abundant hospitality which gave the Association at once a home in their midst; to the Board of Education, and to the Committee of Reception, and especially its Chairman, T. H. Brosnan,, for their constant and untiring labors to promote the welfare and happiness of all the members in attendance; to the several hotels in the city, and the various railroad and steamboat lines, whose liberal reduction of fares has done much to increase the number of delegates in attendance from distant parts of the land; to the Ogdensburg Musical Association, and its leader, Prof. H. S. Perkins, for their sweet and inspiring songs, and to Messrs. Clemons & Redington, for the use of a piano gratuitously furnished; to the daily papers, for the faithful reports of our proceedings; to the President, Secretary, and other retiring officers of the Association, for the wisdom and zeal with which they have conducted its affairs during the year now closing; and to the various lecturers, committees, and members of the Association, whose valuable services have contributed to make this a meeting unsurpassed in the amount and value of the work accomplished.

Resolved, That we believe the cause of true popular education to be the bulwark of our free institutions, the basis of all valuable growth in national prosperity and greatness, and that we feel called upon in this time of our country's trial to double our vigilance and increase our efforts in its behalf; and to this end, we pledge new zeal and labor for the prosperity of this Association.

Adjourned.

Evening Session.

The evening session was spent socially. The exercises consisted of a number of songs by Prof. Perkins and his associates, interspersed with appropriate speeches from Mr. EBERHART, Pres SEARS, Col. JUDSON, Hon. PRESTON KING, and others. Pres. GREENE made some appropriate closing remarks, and the Association adjourned after singing "Old Hundred."

D. N. CAMP, *Secretary.*

OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR 1864–5.

President—S. S. GREENE, Providence, R. I.

Vice-Presidents,

RICHARD EDWARDS, Bloomington, Ill.
S. P. BATES, Harrisburg, Pa.
G. F. PHELPS, New Haven, Conn.
E. P. WILLIAMS, Madison, Wis.
D. FRANKLIN WELLS, Iowa City, Ia.
A. J. RICKOFF, Cincinnati, Ohio.
C. S. PENNELL, St. Louis, Mo.
G. W. HOSS, Indianapolis, Ind.
J. W. BULKLEY, Brooklyn, N. Y.
D. B. HAGAR, Jamaica Plains, Mass.
J. M. GREGORY, Ann Arbor, Mich.
E. P. WESTON, Gorham, Maine.

Secretary,

W. E. SHELDON, Boston, Mass.

Treasurer,

Z. RICHARDS, Washington.

Counselors,

ABNER J. PHIPPS, Mass.
MERRICK LYON, Providence, R. I.
J. S. ADAMS, Burlington, Vt.
C. P. OTIS, Rye, N. H.
D. N. CAMP, New Britain, Conn.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Albany, N. Y.
J. N. MCJILTON, Baltimore, Md.
E. E. WHITE, Columbus, Ohio.
S. H. WHITE, Chicago, Ill.
J. G. MCMYNN, Racine, Wis.
WM. BRUSH, Fayette, Iowa.
T. F. THICHSTUN, Hastings, Minn.
I. T. GOODNOW, Topeka, Kansas.
C. F. CHILDS, St. Louis, Mo.
E. A. GRANT, Louisville, Ky.
B. L. BROWN, New Orleans, La.
JOSEPH HOLDEN, Stockton, Cal.
J. C. SHORTRIDGE, Indianapolis, Ind
R. CRUIKSHANK, Pottstown, Pa.

SAMUEL S. GREENE.

SAMUEL STILLMAN GREENE was born in Belchertown, Mass., on the 3d of May, 1810. Receiving his early education in the district schools of his native town, he fitted for Brown University in Leicester Academy, and graduated in 1837, with the highest honors of his class.

Inheriting "an aptness to teach" from his father, who was known in all the region round about as "Master Greene," he commenced his novitiate as a teacher in the district school in the winter of 1829–30, "at ten dollars a month and boarded round," and followed it up regularly every winter until he entered college, and with the exception of a single winter, until he graduated—thus acquiring the means of continuing his own education and consolidating his own intellectual training, by instructing others.

After graduating, he taught in Worcester Academy, Mass., first as assistant, and then as principal, form 1837 to 1840, which post he resigned to become Town Superintendent of the Public Schools of Springfield—the first appointment of the kind in Massachusetts. In 1842 he removed to Boston, where he was first assistant in the English High School, and the principal of one of the Public Grammar Schools, and in 1849 Agent of the State Board of Education from 1849 to 1851, when he removed to Providence to become Superintendent of the City Public Schools, and soon after Professor of Didactics in Brown University, and in 1855 Professor of Mathematics and Civil Engineering.

While Superintendent in Providence he established a class of teachers, in 1853, composed partly of students in the University, and of city and county teachers, out of which grew up a private Normal School, which in 1854 was adopted by the city, and the same year by the State, and is now known as the State Normal School.

Prof. Greene was one of the founders of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association—and one of the first Board of Editors of the Massachusetts Teacher:—Vice-President and active member of the American Institute of Instruction—and President of the Rhode Island Institute, as well as of the National Teachers' Association—discharging, by his presence in all professional gatherings and a willing service, the duty which every teacher owes to his profession.

Prof. Greene is the author of a very valuable and popular series of English Grammars, viz.:—"*Introduction to the study of English Grammar*," first published in 1856; "*First Lessons in English Grammar*," first published in 1849; "*Elements of English Grammar*," first published in 1853; "*Analysis of the English Language*," first published in 1848. The last named was the first published, and introduced the new method of analysis into this department of instruction. One of his numerous educational lectures is printed in the volume of the American Institute, viz.:—"On teaching Reading through the Elementary Sounds of the Language."

XIV. AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS.

ANONYMOUS.

A-B-C., (The) set forth by the Kynge's Majestie and his Clergye, and commanded to be taught throughout all his realm. London, 1550.*
A-B-C., for Children, newly devised with Syllables, the Lordes prayer, our belief, and the Commandments. London, 1588.*
A-B-C., the Pathway to Readinge; or the newest Spellinge, &c. London, 1590.*
A-B-C., with the Paternoster, Ave Maria, Crede, and ten Commandments. London, 1640.*
A-B-C., with the Shorter Catechism. Glasgow, 1841.
Abecedarium, &c.* [A vocabulary of a few leaves, by a Dutch Monk. Printed from wooden blocks by John Guttenburg.]
Abridgment of the History and Grammar of the English Language. London, 1853.
Accordeon—New and Complete Method. Boston. New York.*
Agricultural Class Book. Dublin, 1853.
Alabama Readers, Nos. I., II., III. New York 1852.*
Alabama Table Book. New Haven.*
Alphabet. New York 1845.*
Alphabet of Thought; or Elements of Metaphysical Science. Harrisburg, 1825.*
Alphabet of American Subjects. Philadelphia.*
Alphabet of General Subjects. Philadelphia.*
American Instructor. Philadelphia, 1730.*
American Lady's Preceptor. Baltimore, 3rd ed., '13.
American Latin Grammar; Compendious Introduction to the Latin Tongue. Providence, 1794.*
American Manual of Phonography. Cincinnati.*
American Lessons in Reading and Spelling. N. York.*
American Orator's Own Book. Philadelphia, 1855.*
American Orthographer, or New Book of Spelling. New York, 1803.*
American Popular Lessons. (Eliza Robbins.) New York, 1839.
American Primer. Brookfield, 1829.
American Reader. (G. Merriam.) Brookfield, 1828, 2d edition, 1829.
American Reader. (J. Leavitt.) No. I. New York, Boston.*
" " No. II. N. York, 1848. (Boston.)
" " No. III. N. York, 1849. (Boston.)
American School Hymn Book. Boston, 1858.*
American Speaker. Philadelphia, 4th edition, 1817. (Boston. 1836.)
American Sunday School Psalmody. N. York, 1845.*
American Young Men's Best Companion; containing Writing, Arithmetic, Book-keeping, Measuring, Forms of Letters, Bonds, &c. 2nd edition, Bost. Walpole. Philadelphia.*
Amesbury Map Questions. Amesbury, Mass., 1843.
Analecta Latina Majora. London, no date.
Analytic Grammar. Philadelphia, 1836.*
Anatomy and Physiology for Schools. Phila.*
Analysis and Synthesis of the Sentence. No title page.
Anglo-Saxon Rootwords, Hand-book of. New York, 1854.*
Anglo-Saxon Derivatives, Hand-book of. New York, 1854.*
Anglo-Saxon Orthography, Hand-book of. New York, 1853, (1854.)
Art of Reading. Boston, 2nd edition, 1826.*
Art of Speaking; Lessons in Reading, &c. Boston—before 1804.*
Arithmetic for Young Children. London, 1842.
Arithmetic simplified. (C. E. Beecher.) Hartford, '98.
Arithmetic—Vulgar and Decimal. Boston, 1794.*
Arithmetical Tables for the School Room. N. York.*
Arithmetical Tables and Rules. Burlington, N. J., '15.
Arithmetical Rules and Tables. Philadelphia, 1854.

Baptist Catechism. Parts I., II. (Keach.) N. York, 1852. Philadelphia.*
Same, with references. New York, 1852.*
Baptist Question Books. Scripture Series, 2 Nos. Philadelphia.*
Beauties of the New England Primer. N. York, n. d.
Beauties of the Christian's Friend. (Author of Child's First Book. Boston, 1808, (1827.)
Beauties of the Bible. Before 1804.*
Bernardo del Carpio. Boston, 1843.*
Benga Primer. New London, Penn., 1855.*
Bible Biography for use of Sunday Schools. Boston, 1830.*
Biographical Sketches of Eminent British Poets. Dublin, 1854.
Blackboard in the Primary School. (J. F. Bumstead.) Boston, 1841.
Book of Commerce. Boston, 1833. (Philadelphia.)
Book of Common Prayer in Mohawk. N. Y., 1769.*
Book for Massachusetts Children. (Hildreth.) Boston, 1829.*
Book for New Hampshire Children. (H. Hildreth.)*
Borough Road Model School—Text-Book. London.*
Boston Flute Instruction Book. Boston. New York.*
Boston Reading Lessons. Boston, 1837.
Boston School Atlas. Boston.*
Boston Primer; Improvement of the New England Primer. Boston, 1810.*
Boston Writing Copies. Boston, 1830.*
Botanical Dictionary. (A. Eaton.) N. Haven, 1816.
Botany for all Classes. New York.*
Botany for Beginners. New York.*
British Grammar. (London 1760, 1772.) Boston, '84.
Brief Remarker.*

Cabinet Family Atlas. Philadelphia.*
Campus Florum Latinitatis. (Latin and French.) Rouen, 1635.
Carolina Table Book. New Haven.*
Cartilla ó Silabario, &c. Boston, 15th edition, 1843.*
Catalogue of Dictionaries, Vocabularies, Grammars, and Alphabets. London, 1796.*
Catalogue of Grammars. *See* G. Brown's Grammar of Grammars, 1860; Well's Grammar, 1863.*
Catalogue of Arithmetics. *See* DeMorgan's Arithmetical Books. London, 1847.
Catalogue of Book-keeping. *See* Foster's Book-keeping. New York, 1862.
Catechism. The way of Truth laid out; or Supplies from the Tower of David. Boston, 2nd edition, 1721.*
Catechism. Nos. I—IV. New York.*
Catechism on the Collects. New York.*
Catechisme. [Printed for the Dorchester (Mass.) Schools.] London, 1650, 1655.*

Catechisme, in the Negro Christianized. Bost., 1693.*
Catechism—in three Parts. Boston, 3d edition, 1926.*
Catechism of the Bible. New York, 1827.*
Catechism of Animated Nature. New York, 1827.*
Catechism of Geography. New York, 1827.*
Catechism of General Knowledge. New York, 1827.*
Catechism of Health. New York, 1827.*
Catechism of Botany. New York, 1827.*
Catechism of Universal History. New York, 1827.*
Catholicon, seu Abecedarium. [Printed from wooden blocks, by John Guttenberg, 1640.*]
Catholicon, seu Summa Grammaticalis. [Printed by Faust, in 1460.]*
Cato's Moral Distichs Englished in Couplets. Philadelphia, 1735.*
Central School Reader. Philadelphia, 1847, 1852.*
Chahta Holisso, &c.; The Choctaw Spelling Book. Boston, 5th edition, 1849.
Cherokee Primer, Park Hill, Arkansas, 1840, 1846.*
Child's Assistant. Brookfield, 1839.*
Child's Book in Ottawa. Detroit, 1845.*
Chemistry applied to Agriculture, Physiology, and Commerce. New York.*
Child's Arithmetic. Washington, no date. Hart., '18.
Child's Botany. Boston.*
Child's Botany for Beginners. Boston.*
Child's Drawing Book, Cottages. Philadelphia.*
Child's Elementary Drawing Book. New York.*
Child's First Book. (Author of Children's Friend.) Boston, 1816.
Child's First Book; an Easy Introduction to Reading. 1804.*
Child's First Book in Geography. Philadelphia.*
Child's First Drawing Book. New York.*
Child's First History of America. New York.*
Child's Juvenile Drawing Book, Landscapes. Phila.*
Child's Guide. (G. Merriam.) Brookfield, 1830. Springfield, 1845.
Child's Instructor. Salem, 1814. New York, 1818.
Child's Primer. Boston, no date.*
Child's New Plaything. A Spelling Book. Boston, 1744.*
Child's Scripture Question Book. New York, 1845.*
Child's United States. Philadelphia.*
Christian Orator. Boston, 2nd edition, 1818.
Church Catechism. Boston, 1745.*
Church Primer. New York.*
Clarionet Preceptor. Hallowell.*
Class Book of Poetry. London, 1832.
Class Book of Prose and Poetry, with Exercises in Parsing. Boston.*
Classical Spelling Book, Key to the. (A. B. Chapin.) No date.
Clavis Homerica. No title page.
Collectanea Græca Minora. Cambridge, 1st edition, 1804. (Philadelphia, 1858.)
College Atlas. London.
Collection of Psalter Tunes, with Instructions. Boston, 1721. Phila., 1753.*
Colmena Espanola, or Spanish Extracts. Boston, 5th edition, 1843.*
Colonies of Great Britain. London, 1852.
Columbian Writing Book. Eight numbers. New Bedford and Providence.*
Columbian Arithmetic. Haverhill, 1837.
Columbian Arithmetician.*
Comic Grammar. London, 1840.*
Comme on parle Français à Paris. New York.*
Common School Reader. Parts I., II., III., IV. Philadelphia.*
Companion to the Bible. New York.*
Compendium Logicæ, &c. Boston, 1735.*
Compendious Summary of Universal History. Phila.*
Compendium of Astronomy. Philadelphia, 1809.
Complete Letter Writer. New York, 1763.*
Complete English Spelling Dictionary for the use of Schools. London, 1764.*
Complete Dictionary of the Chinook Jargon. Portland, O. T., 3d edition, 1856.*
Complete Violin Instructor. Boston.*
Comprehensive Grammar. 3rd edition, Phila., 1789.*
Comprehensive Grammar, and Complete Letter Writer. London, 1811.*
Comprehensive Reader in Prose and Poetry. London, no date.
Comprehensive Primer. London, no date.
Concise Grammar of the English Language, in verse. New York, 1st edition, 1825.*
Constitutional Text-Book. New York, 1854.
Consecutive Union Question Books. 4 volumes. New York, 1845.*
Conversational Commentary for Bible Classes. New York.*
Conversations on Common Things. (D. L. Dix.) Bost., (1824.) 2nd edition, 1826. 8th edition, 1840. 9th edition, 1841, 1843.
Conversation on Chemistry. (Mrs. Marcet.) New Haven, 1813, 1814.
Conversations on the History of Massachusetts. Boston, 1831.*
Conversations on Political Economy. Phila., 1817*.
Course of Calisthenics for Young Ladies. (C. E. Beecher?) Hartford, 1832.*

Daily Lesson Books, Nos. I., II., III., IV. (H. Dunn and J. T. Crossley.) London, no date.
Sequel to No. II. (H. Dunn and J. T. Crossley.) London, no date.
Decoy, or Elementary English Grammar. New York, 1820.*
Delectus Sententiarum Græcarum. *See* F. P. Leverett.
Detroit Public School Manual and Table-Book. Detroit, 1862.
Devotional Exercises for Schools. Boston, 1844.
Dialect of Craven. 2 vols. London, 1828.
Dictionaire de L'Académie Français. 2 vols. Paris, 6th edition, 1835.
Dictionaire Royal, en abrégé.
Dictionary of Select and Popular Quotations. Phila.*
Dictionariolum Trilingue. Title page lost.
Drawing for Young Children. London, 1840.
Drawing Book for Young Persons. New York.*
Drawing Book of Trees. New York.*

Easy Lessons for Little Ones at Home. New York.*
Easy Lessons in Perspective. (Mrs. Minot.) Boston, 1830.
Easy Lessons for Infant Classes in Sabbath Schools. Worcester, 1840.
Easy Introduction to the Knowledge of Nature. New York.*
Easy Lessons in Learning French. Boston.*
Easy Primer. (G. Merriam.) Brookfield, Springfield.*
Easy Questions for Little Children, N. Y.*
Edinburgh Sessional School Spelling Book.*
Edward's First Lessons in Grammar. (Mrs. A. C. Lowell.) Boston, 1843.
Elements of Algebra. Philadelphia.*
Elements of Chemistry, by Uncle Davy. N. Y., 1846.*
Elements of Botany. London, 8th edition, 1854. (Phila.)
Elementary Drawing Book. Drawing, Shading, and Coloring. Philadelphia.*
Elementary Questions on the Old Testament. New York, 1854.*
El Director de los Ninos. Philadelphia, 1811.
Elementary Catechism on Sanitation. London, 1851.
Elementary Drawing Book. New York.*
Elements of Natural Philosophy. Phila., 1807.
Elements of Geometry. Dublin, 1836.
Elements of Geometry. Philadelphia. Boston.*
Elements of Geography. Philadelphia, 1857.
Elements of French Pronunciation. By F. A. B. Paris, 1825.
Elements of the Grammar of the English Language. New York, 1822.
Elements of Reading. London, 1681.*
Elements of Musical Articulation. Boston.*
Enclitica: Outlines of a Course of Universal Grammar. London, 1814.
England's Perfect Schoolmaster, or directions for Reading, Spelling, &c. London, 1676.*

English and German Grammar. Phila., 1748.*
English Grammar, with First Lessons in Reading. London, 2d edition, 1844.
English Grammar. Dublin, 1841, 1849.
English Grammar. By T. C. London, 1803.*
English Grammar. London, 1795.*
English Grammar. London, 1838.
English Grammar—with Engravings. London, 1890.*
English Grammar. Huddersfield, 1817.*
English Grammar. Albany, 1819.*
English School Grammar. Christian Knowledge Society. London.*
English School Grammar. London, 1850.
English Spelling Book. (G. D. Abbott.) New York, 1847, (1849.)
English Tongue—the Teacher's Instructor in the Art of Spelling Improved. Boston, 1757.*
English Tutor. London, 1747.*
English-German and German-English Dictionary. Phila., 1834.*
Engrafted Words of the English Language, Hand-book of. New York, 1854.*
Epitome Historiæ Græcæ. (*See* Sirat.)
Englishman's Greek Concordance. New York.*
Essentials of English Grammar. 3rd edition, 1821.*
Ethiopian Accordeon Instructor. Boston, New York.*
Ethiopian Flute Instructor. Boston, New York.*
Ethiopian Violin Instructor. Boston, New York.*
Etymological Dictionary of English Language of Glasgow Deaf and Dumb Institution. Glasgow, 1834, (MS.)
Etymological Class Book. Philadelphia.*
Exempla Minora, or English Examples. New Haven, 1st American edition, 1821. 2nd edition, 1823.
Excerpta Latina. New Haven, 1836. (Boston)
Excerptæ ex Ovidio, Tibullo, et Propertio. Glas., 1828.
Excerpta quædam e Scriptoribus Latinis probatioribus. Boston, 2d edition, 1827.*
Exercises in Orthography. (P. P. G.) Prov., 1826.
Exercises in Grammar. (C. E. Beecher.) Hartford, '29.
Exercises in False English. Leeds, 12th edition, 1806.
Exercises in Reading and Speaking. Alabama Series, 1844.*
Evangelical Instructor. Boston, 1829.*

Familiar Lessons on Physiology. New York.*
Family Instructor.*
Fife Instructor. Hallowell.*
First Book of Arithmetic. Dublin, 1841.
First Book of Reading Lessons, (Brothers of Christian Schools.) New York, 1854.
First Exercises in Light, Color and Shade. (H. Cole.) London, 1840.
First Footsteps in the Way of Knowledge. New York, 1856.*
First Notions of Singing and Elocution. Warrington, England, 1857.
First Lessons in English Grammar. Boston, 1st edition, 1842.*
First Reading Lessons for Children.*
First Lessons in the History of the United States. Boston, 1856.
First, Second, and Third Books of History combined with Geography. Boston, 1852.*
First, Second, and Third Reading Books. New York, 1845.*
First Thoughts; or Beginning to Think. New York.*
First Lessons in Moral Philosophy. New York, 1848.
First Lessons on the Great Principles of Religion. New York, 1845.*
First Lessons in Intellectual Philosophy. (Edited by Blaisdale.) Boston, 1829.
First Lessons in Chemistry. By Uncle Davy. St. Louis.*
First Steps in Thorough Base and Harmony. New York.*
First Book, or Spelling Lessons for Primary Schools. Boston, 1826.*
Five Hundred Questions on Chemistry, New Haven, 1825.*
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Youth's Instructor in the English Tongue. Boston, 1746.*

XV. EDUCATIONAL MISCELLANY AND INTELLIGENCE.

DR. HERMANN WIMMER, author of a valuable volume on the Church and School of North America, (*Die Kirche und Schule,*) and Professor of Languages in Krause's School at Dresden, Saxony, will receive into his family a few American boys, whose parents prefer to place them under his immediate supervision, both as to conduct and studies, while acquiring the German language and other branches of a liberal education, in the school of Krause, or other private schools, or in any of the higher public schools of Dresden. The charge for board, including supervision and instruction in the public schools, is three hundred dollars. Dr. Wimmer's residence is in a healthy and attractive part of the city. Further inquiries may be made of the editor of this Journal.

WILLIAM H. WELLS has resigned the office of Superintendent of the Public Schools of Chicago, which he has filled with so much usefulness to the schools, and honor to himself, to become an Insurance Agent—in the belief that a change of avocation will be beneficial to his health, impaired by more than thirty years devotion to school and educational labors. His remarks on taking leave of the Board of Education and the Teachers of the city, we shall transfer to our pages as a document of historical value, as well as for its personal interest. He is succeeded in the office of Superintendent, by HON. J. L. PICKARD, of Wisconsin.

ENCYCLOLEXICON OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, is the title of a philological work which N. LAWRENCE LINDSLEY, LL. D., of Lebanon, Tennessee, has been engaged in preparing for the press for many years, and from which he has not been diverted by the din of arms. He brings to his undertaking an inherited delicacy and purity in the use of his native tongue—for we have had but few more correct and elegant speakers and writers of the English language than his father, the late President Lindsley, of Nashville University, and to his early and continued correct usage, he has devoted patient and critical investigation. Among our American scholars who have expressed both interest and confidence in the progress and success of the work, we notice the names of Mr. Everett, Rev. Dr. Halsey, of Chicago, Rev. Dr. Sprague, of Albany, Rev. Dr. Anderson, Tennessee, and the lexicographer, Dr. Worcester.

THE NATIONAL TEACHER'S ASSOCIATION at its late annual meeting at Ogdensburg, authorized and requested the Directors to include in the publication of the Proceedings, a Summary of the Proceedings of the State Teacher's Associations for 1864. It will facilitate the object, if the President or Secretary of each Association will forward to the editor of this Journal a brief summary in paragraphs, as follows:

1. Date of formation, number of meetings Annual and Special, prior to 1864.
2. Time and place of Annual and other meetings for 1864.
3. *Addresses.* Subject and author of each, with his name in full, Post-office address, and relation to schools and education.
4. *Reports and Essays* Subject and author, &c.
5. *Discussion.* Subject, and participators in each.
6. *Resolutions, &c.*
7. *Officers for* 1865. Names in full, Post-office address, and relations to schools and education.
8. *Mode of Publication.*

In the absence of any State meetings, the proceedings of any County or City Association can be given.


REESE
UNIVERSITY



Engd by Geo F. Perine N.Y.

Yours truly
S. S. Greene

ENGRAVED FOR BARNARD'S AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION



THE

American Journal of Education.

[NEW SERIES, NO. 12.]

No. XXXVII.—DECEMBER 1864.

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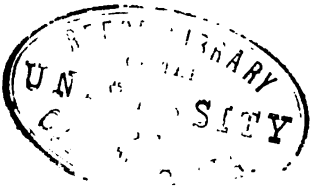
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I. LYCURGUS, AND EDUCATION AMONG THE SPARTANS.

LYCURGUS.

Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, lived in the ninth century before Christ, the date commonly given him being B. C. 884. Upon the death of his brother, Polydectes, king of Sparta, he assumed the government as guardian of his son, Charilaus, the future king, then unborn, but private enmities soon forced him to self-exile and foreign travel. A residence in Crete where the Dorian customs were still in full force, revealed its influence upon him in his subsequent acts as lawgiver, and he is said to have brought with him from Ionia the poems of Homer, which were to become the common ground-work of civilization for all Greece. Recalled to Sparta to ward off the anarchy which threatened the State, he constructed a constitution, with the approval of the Delphic oracle, and obligated the citizens to its observance until his return from Delphi whither he was going to consult the god respecting its merits. The response being favorable, Lycurgus determined not to return, and is reported to have put an end to his life by starvation and to have caused his ashes to be thrown into the sea in order that the Spartans might never be able to bring them home and so free themselves from the vow which they had taken. Both in the laws of Lycurgus and in the so called "Lycurgan Constitution," his regulations respecting education hold a prominent place. But the principles of Spartan education were, no more than these laws, the invention of Lycurgus. Their origin is rather to be found in the traditionary customs and practices of the Dorian race; to Lycurgus belongs the merit of having given them a permanent form, developed them in particular directions, and molded them, thus modified, into a well-considered, consistent system, conformable to the spirit of the State constitution. It can not, however, be doubted that many things, handed down under his name, are of later origin. But the fact that it is impossible to distinguish the early from the later productions is of little consequence, for through the con-

sistency of the system, these additions did but render previous principles more practical and better suited to present wants. The principal sources of our information respecting Spartan education are Xenophon and Plutarch, though many facts relating to it are found scattered through the writings of other Greek authors.*

EDUCATION AMONG THE SPARTANS.

The distinguishing characteristic of Spartan education was that it was, throughout, an institution of and for the State, determined in every particular by the designs, interests, and peculiarities of the State. Its object was not the improvement of the man as a man, by the general development and harmonious perfecting of his inherent capacities, but simply his training as a *Spartan citizen;* it was therefore a *political* system, its ideal of culture corresponding with its ideal of Spartan citizenship. So intimately related was it to the constitution of the State that no one was fully recognized as a citizen (ὅμοιος) that had not received this training, and on the other hand whoever had shared it, even though born a slave, was on that account entitled to admission among the Spartans as a new citizen (νεοδαμώδης). The instruction of all was, therefore, without distinction; individual or special training was unknown. The nature of the claims which the State made upon the citizen determined what powers should be developed and trained, and what methods should be used, and in like manner also what propensities of the soul should be left undeveloped or kept under restraint. These claims required them to preserve the liberty of the State in its traditional constitutional form and to cherish the power of the State in its external relations. Limited in number—scarcely exceeding nine thousand in the most prosperous period of the nation's history—they had to maintain control over at least twice as many political minors, vassals, (the περίοικοι) and a far greater number of slaves, and at the same time to gain so commanding a position as to be able to defend themselves against the other differently constituted States, both Greek and barbarian. No citizen here was permitted to have an interest different from that of other citizens and of the whole; self must be lost, as it were, in the State; every one's powers must receive the highest possible tension, and every one must attain to the highest pitch of political excellence, which consisted, on the one hand, in the capacity to govern, as understood by the Spartans, and on the other hand, in military efficiency.

* The following summary is drawn from the manuals upon the antiquities of Greece, by Hermann, Schümann, Schwalbe, &c. Hermann has produced a valuable monograph upon the "Antiquities of Lacedemon."

Children were considered the property of the State, and to the State belonged the decision whether they should be reared or put to death. As soon as born, the child was brought before the oldest members of the tribe to which the father belonged, and if found of faultless form and of a strong, healthy constitution, permission was given for its preservation; but if in any respect deformed or weak, it was at their command exposed in a certain glen of Mount Taygetus. The children remained only for six years under their mothers' charge, and their training during this time was conducted very carefully in accordance with prescribed rules. All tenderness was excluded; swaddling clothes were never used; the child was often bathed in wine, which was supposed to promote the robust development of bodies naturally strong; timid and fretful children were not permitted to grow up; and all were habituated at an early age to being left alone.

Their education, properly so called, commenced with the seventh year and was altogether a State matter. The chief control of it was intrusted to a special superintendent (the παιδονόμος,) whose office was one of high rank and who was elected from among the most esteemed of the old men. Under him were five directors (βίδυοι) who directed and superintended the exercises of the boys. This system is seen to be especially characteristic when compared with the custom which prevailed among all other Greeks, of committing the care of children to slaves. Free men—thus thought the Spartans—must be reared by free men. But the efficiency of the best instructors is often frustrated by the quiet reaction of their co-educators, or as we are wont to say, by the influence of their surroundings. In Sparta, however, all unauthorized co-educators were removed and the boys came in contact with none at all—neither slaves nor strangers—but such as were obligated to exert a salutary influence upon them. They were under a *constant superintendence.* At the age of seven years they were received into the public institutions for education, where they were graded in a military manner according to their ages and divided into companies (βοῦαι, or ἀγέλαι) and these again into sections (ἴλαι.) This gathering of the boys together into one large community caused them to feel as members of one body, of a State organism having common interests. The leaders of the several divisions were chosen from the ablest of the young men (εἴρενες) and had the charge of the exercises of their divisions under the superintendence of the directors, and restrained all impropriety. But the education of the youth was a subject of *general* interest, and hence all citizens shared in it

and each was a representative of the director, with the same official rights. Some of the older citizens were probably always present during the exercises of the boys, in which case it would be their duty to coöperate in the execution of the spirit of the laws. By this means also a salutary feeling of regard was excited between the young and the old, for every citizen would look upon each boy as his own son, and the boys would see in every grown person, a father.

The principal means by which education in general was effected, were of the simplest nature—*the excitement of ambition*, and *punishment*. Scarcely even in the schools of the Jesuits has the feeling of ambition been employed in the service of education to such an extent as was the case in Sparta. The reason is evident; for the results of this method are most favorable, if regard be had not to the *moral* worth of the action, nor to the sentiment underlying it, nor to the relation of the actor to God, but merely to the value or rather the usefulness of the action to the community, and therefore, in Sparta, to the State. The endeavor after distinction above others (αἰὲν ἀριστεύειν καὶ ὑπείροχον ἔμμεναι ἄλλων) was an inborn, national trait of every Greek, and in Sparta it was especially cherished. Ambition was with them the spur not merely in youth, but even to hoary old age. Honor, high honor awaited the good and the brave; shame and ignominy rested upon the evil and cowardly. But the love of honor was employed systematically in the cause of education. This ambitious feeling at different periods of age was made prominent even in the responsive singing at certain festivals. The example reported by Plutarch is indicative of this, where the old men sung,

"Once we were men, of strength and courage full,"

to which the men replied,

"Such now are we, come, prove us, if ye will,"

and the boys joined in with

"Yet time will show us better far than ye."

Moreover the exercises of the boys were always greeted with the applause or censure of the spectators, and to give these demonstrations a yet stronger effect, at the public games at which the adult youth exhibited their strength and dexterity, it was customary for the girls and maidens to sing songs of praise in honor of the victors and to receive the conquered with bitter mockery. The victors were crowned, according to the general Hellenic custom, the real prize consisting of the glory of victory, of which the sim-

ple crown was but a token. A still stronger ambition, perhaps, was exerted, at least in the masses, in the following manner. Those of the ablest youth were chosen as "Hippagretai," (ἱππαγρέται) each of whom again selected a hundred others, stating in each instance the reasons for his choice or rejection. It devolved now upon the rejected to establish their reputation again, if possible, by continued strife and competition with the chosen ones, who maintained their position only by showing themselves to be the ablest. For this reason both parties watched carefully for any weak point in their opponents, or for any offense against morals or the laws, that would expose them to disgrace. Hard battles were often fought between them in the ring, in which they were urged on by the spectators; but that their passions might not be carried too far and as a lesson in self-government, the combatants were required to cease the combat as soon as any citizen interfered and spoke the word. The relations of friendship, also, which existed betwen the older citizens and the youth as required by the laws, were taken advantage of as a spur to exertion, and it was considered a disgrace not to be chosen as the favorite of some older person. Where honor was thus esteemed, every reproach and disgrace must naturally have been felt so much the more keenly. Yet it fell inexorably upon all who showed signs of slothfulness or disregard of distinction, or acted in an effeminate or cowardly manner. As a second means of maintaining good discipline and as a motive for correct conduct and reformation, use was made of *punishment.* The chief form of punishment was by blows, though deprivation of food was resorted to in rare cases. Flogging played, indeed, a strong role in Sparta; it was considered indispensable in the formation of a frank, manly disposition, and was inflicted for the most diverse offenses, both small and great, but in very different degrees of severity. All the instructors had the most unlimited power of punishment, from the "paidonome" to the assistants among the youths, including also all the citizens. It was inflicted immediately upon the commission of the offense, but only by certain youths chosen for the purpose (μαστιγόφοροι,) who were always present with whips. Complaints on account of punishments received were never permitted, and if a boy complained at all to his father of having been handled too severely by any one, he was sure of the consolation of another sound beating. The elders also never permitted themselves to find fault with one of the εἴρενες in presence of the boys, for carrying his punishment too far. This was always done in private that their authority might not be weakened and the full efficacy of punishment be preserved.

A distinction is always to be drawn between moral, physical or gymnastic, and intellectual culture. In the system of Spartan education the three in fact essentially exist, and in mutual intimate relation form the above described ideal of a training whose principles are drawn from politics. *Moral* culture is most generally controlled by its political importance, though noble ideas and important truths ever lie at its foundation; but, in truth, if Spartan virtues be measured by the standard of *true morality*, they will be found, as Augustine keenly yet truly remarked, to be but brilliant vices. The foundation of a civil morality was rightly considered to be a firm manly *will*. In this principle we may distinguish a negative and a positive side. The strength of the will depends upon man's power of self-government. In its negative aspect, it averts whatever restricts freedom and debases man to be the slave of any immoral influence; the positive side consists in the conformity of the individual will to a superior moral power—in its conformity to law. For the Spartans, this higher power was the law of the State, the will of the State; and in both directions Spartan education wrought its work excellently. The government of man over himself consists especially in the control of the spirit over the body; in this rests at least the moral liberty which ancient nations attained to. Control over the body consists, first of all, in control over its members so that he may employ them at will, and use them with safety to the full limit which nature allows, and this control is secured by a systematically carried out system of gymnastics, of which we will speak more fully further on. The consciousness of one's own strength depends upon confidence in one's control over his physical powers, and hence it is actually a physical requisite to a strong will. But it is of further force in holding under restraint the propensities, lusts, and passions of the body, in wholly restraining or duly moderating them. Of a like tendency is a habit of great simplicity in the wants of life, and sobriety in pleasures of every kind. But it seems to have been wholly incompatible with the Spartan character to give prominence to one's own personality and individuality. A modest, reserved manner on the part of the youth was strictly insisted upon and a becoming outward demeanor was secured by prescribed rules. We know that when they appeared upon the street, they held their hands within their cloaks and walked on in silence, looking neither to the right hand nor the left, but on the ground before them. "One would sooner expect a stone to speak or the eyes of a brazen statue to move, than to hear the voice of one of these Spartan boys or to catch a

look from his eyes; he is more modest than a girl that has been brought up in the privacy of home." Indeed, too great heed can not be paid to outward conduct. Experience teaches that between the outward character and the inner disposition there exists such a relation that the one calls forth the other, so that even the being accustomed to a demeanor corresponding to a modest feeling, will generate that very feeling. Wisely, therefore, are the habits of conduct commenced in earliest youth, even before their moral efficacy can be appreciable. In the same way we may estimate the importance of the regulation which forbade boys and youth to speak in the company of older men except in reply to questions; no kind of self-control is acquired or exercised with more difficulty than that which requires the repression of one's opinions; yet none is of more value in practical life. Individuality naturally asserts itself most strongly and makes itself most prominent in youth. Hence the Spartans intrusted to their young men the most difficult tasks in the service of the State, calling into requisition their utmost powers, that so advantage might be taken of the vigor of their strength, their love of pleasure restrained by the seriousness, and their pride and self-boasting by the difficulty of the demands made upon them. On the other hand, there is the sensitiveness and irritability which is apt to show itself unpleasantly in peculiarly constituted dispositions, but which would prove absolutely destructive in a state like Sparta, where the citizens lived continually and intimately together. The only remedy here was the becoming habituated to that which excites sensitiveness, and therefore the boys were designedly subjected to provocations and accustomed to patiently endure raillery and even bitter mockery, and were required to maintain their self-control under the strongest of insults.

It was necessary, however, that a decided direction should be given to the individual will, in order that it might coincide with the laws and tendencies of the State, and the foundation for this culture was found in the habit of implicit obedience not only to those placed immediately over the youth but to all the elder citizens. They were taught to recognize the will of the State as presented in those who were, as it were, the bearers of the law which all served. It was justly looked upon as an evidence of a frank and noble disposition, characteristic of a man fitted to govern, when—instead of assuming to stand above and regardless of law and duty, as was frequently the case in other States—he bound himself publicly to the law even in its smallest particulars, and rendered swift and zealous obedience to the commands of his superiors. Moreover,

the moral sentiment of the individual, his opinion of good and evil, should be one with that of the community, and to this end great care was exercised. The youth were restricted as far as possible from all intercourse or acquaintance with whatever is bad, and every means was used, on the other hand, to confirm their judgment of that which is good and praiseworthy. The men, therefore, while sitting at their meals, often called the boys to join them, and while in their company everything indecorous was sedulously avoided, nothing was spoken of but the renowned deeds of the brave or the praiseworthy sayings of the good—no mention was made of any unworthy deed or unworthy expression. In this way they sought to impress upon their young minds the idea of Spartan virtue, of the upright and the honorable (*καλοκἀγαθία*) and in like manner a contempt of death, and the undervaluation of life and of temporal goods in comparison with the claims of honor and virtue, and the demands of the State; and with a moral sentiment of this kind were the minds of the youth imbued, a sentiment amounting in fact to a real enthusiasm. At times when they were not engaged in gymnastic exercises, the leaders of the divisions were accustomed to put questions to the boys (*e. g.* Who is the best man? What conduct deserves the highest praise?) to which they briefly gave such answers as the spirit of Spartanism required, and it was esteemed a great disgrace for one not to have clear and ready opinions upon all moral and political subjects. One of the principal means, however, for the formation of character, lay in the legally encouraged relations of friendship that existed between the old and young. While in other Grecian States this love degenerated into base sensuality, in Sparta it always preserved a purely moral character and rested only upon mutual affection. Every one of the older citizens was almost obliged to select a favorite from among the boys or youth, and to cherish a constant friendly intercourse with him. It was his duty to impress upon the youth his ideal of honor and uprightness, and to exhibit in himself an example worthy to be followed, while his pupil was required to listen willingly to all his counsel. So great efficacy was expected from this relation that the elder was made accountable for all the other's faults and was punished for them. At the same time, the strong desires of the heart for sympathy and love were thus gratified, and in such a way as to bring direct advantage to the State by binding old and young together by the closest bond of union, and also by making a sure channel of transmission for the traditional constitution and rules of living. Finally, there was a gradual promotion from a position of

obedience to one of command. It commenced by their assisting in the management of the boys, while at the same time, slaves were placed under them who waited upon them at table; they were next placed in charge of the vassals who lived in the surrounding country, and afterwards received small commands over the bands of helots attached to the army.

The physical or gymnastic training of the Spartans, though coming, as we have seen, under the politico-moral view of the system, had yet for its special object, military efficiency. As the Spartans could not hope to prevail in war by virtue of their numbers, the demands made upon the individuals must be proportionally the more pressing, and the necessary means were therefore employed to secure from each uniformly the *full* use of *all* his faculties. By a restricted diet it was sought to harden the body and make it safe in a certain degree from pernicious external influences, to make it free, independent, and an ever docile subject of the will. It was in this direction that education among them was carried somewhat to an extreme, and it is to this that one has reference when he speaks proverbially of "a Spartan training." The boys wore no shoes and no covering for the head, and the hair was shaven close until entrance upon manhood. After the twelfth year all under garments were laid aside and a single cloak became the only clothing, and so continued through life. The couch was hard, made by the boy himself of the leafy heads of the reeds that grew upon the banks of the Eurotas; only in winter was he permitted to add to it any warmer material. Baths were taken only in the Eurotas—warm ones, such as were customary throughout the rest of Greece, were unknown, and as little use was made of unguents. The food was scanty, for the full satisfaction of hunger was considered injurious to health, and it was necessary for the boys to learn to subdue their hunger. Advantage was also taken of this in another way. That they might appease their hunger, the law allowed the theft of certain kinds of provisions, but whoever was detected was to be severely punished. Thus they acquired cunning and adroitness, such as a warrior needs when in an enemy's land. This regulation has been unjustly censured as employing an immoral means for a moral end. But in truth the idea of theft was removed, for the law which created the crime, was suspended in this special instance.* No Spartan was by this means made a thief, nor a pilferer of delicacies, for the permission to steal was limited to certain simple necessaries of life. We

* The law itself may be properly considered immoral in so far as it permitted the property of the vassals or helots to be taken. But we have too little information to pass decisive judgment upon this point.

are not fully informed of the rules prescribed for the conduct of the youth, but their particularity may be inferred from the simple instance that they were forbidden to take a light with them in going any where in the dark. But the Spartan system of training reached the remotest extreme from the effeminacy of other nations, in its consistent endeavor to accustom the body to the endurance of severe pain; for this purpose there was instituted the custom of a general flagellation (διαμαστίγωσις) of the boys at the annual feast of Diana Orthia. The scourging was continued the whole day and whoever endured it the longest without manifestation of pain, received a prize as βωμονίκης. It is certain that many yielded up their lives under the blows rather than change a feature.

The Spartan youth spent the greater part of their time in physical exercises in the gymnasia, which were differently arranged according to the different ages of the classes. They rightly thought that the physical powers, as a whole, should be developed gradually and that the desired perfection could not be attained until the body was fully grown; the strength therefore was spared in early years and the final result was made thus the more certain. Of particular gymnastic exercises, especial attention was given to running, leaping, wrestling, throwing the discus and the javelin. Every thing was carefully avoided that seemed to go beyond what was necessary or to possess merely a kind of artistic merit, and hence boxing and the pancratium were wholly excluded. The desire was to train warriors, not athletes; the one acts from his position as but one member of a whole, the other asserts for himself an independent importance. In their exercises, therefore, many were engaged at once and great stress was laid upon military organization, order, and discipline. Exercises in the use of arms were only such as were adapted to the actual needs of warfare and required in the tactical training of the individual. But the contest with heavy arms (ὁπλομαχία) which after the Peloponnesian war became prevalent throughout Greece, were not permitted at all in Sparta. These various exercises were the chief amusements of the Spartan youth—indeed, they knew no other pleasures whatever. They engaged in them, therefore, with a certain degree of hilarity, and there were numerous games requiring dexterity and strength, to which they became greatly attached. The elder citizens assumed the duty of arranging the games, directing and enlivening them, and sometimes themselves publicly joining in them. They took great delight in games of ball, of which there were many varieties, some of them joined with dancing. The older class of young men were hence called σφαιρεῖς,

ball-players. The noblest amusement of the men was the so called "war-game," in which they engaged upon the island of Platanistes, near Sparta, and also the hunt, which they looked upon as a worthy introduction to war itself. The Spartan however possessed—for he was a Greek—an inborn appreciation of and longing for graceful beauty, which received its gratification in the dances, with which was joined pantomimic acting. The movements of the dance were expressive of thought; the soul made use of the body for the immediate expression of its inmost emotions; and in this it is that the pedagogical value of the art of dancing lies. The Pyrrhic dance, which was performed in armor, was an especial favorite. An annual festival was established for the exhibition of the youth in these exercises, which naturally contributed much to the encouragement of an elevated taste. The duties which the young men (the μελλεί-ρενες, from eighteen to twenty years of age) were required to perform for the public security and order in the territory, formed an introduction to actual service in the field. The State was threatened with continued danger from the great mass of helots whom it still could not do without and who were therefore regarded as enemies. It was made the duty of the youth to watch and restrain them, and to remove the most dangerous out of the way. Upon reaching his twentieth year, the youth was received into the army, but his education was not considered as finished until his thirtieth year.

The politico-moral bearing of Spartan education alone determined the limits of physical training, which however expanded itself so broadly that mention can scarcely be made of any special intellectual culture. Still for the promotion of political ends there was that learned and practiced which may be considered as giving to the Spartan a thorough mental training, capacitating him to feel unabashed even in comparison with the more scientifically educated Athenian, and in many respects to appear even superior to him. To read and write with ease, which we are wont to look upon as the first elements of education, the Spartans did not need to understand, though the necessities of the political position which they held naturally induced many to possess themselves of these qualifications. The Spartan did not learn from books but from word of mouth, and what he learned, he learned by heart. Hence whatever he acquired became a purely mental possession, and the deficiency in the quantity of knowledge was richly compensated for in the intense appreciation of the little treasure which he possessed. In this way he learned, beside the unwritten teachings (ῥήτραι) of

sistency of the system, these additions did but render previous principles more practical and better suited to present wants. The principal sources of our information respecting Spartan education are Xenophon and Plutarch, though many facts relating to it are found scattered through the writings of other Greek authors.*

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A distinction is always to be drawn between moral, physical or gymnastic, and intellectual culture. In the system of Spartan education the three in fact essentially exist, and in mutual intimate relation form the above described ideal of a training whose principles are drawn from politics. *Moral* culture is most generally controlled by its political importance, though noble ideas and important truths ever lie at its foundation; but, in truth, if Spartan virtues be measured by the standard of *true morality*, they will be found, as Augustine keenly yet truly remarked, to be but brilliant vices. The foundation of a civil morality was rightly considered to be a firm manly *will*. In this principle we may distinguish a negative and a positive side. The strength of the will depends upon man's power of self-government. In its negative aspect, it averts whatever restricts freedom and debases man to be the slave of any immoral influence; the positive side consists in the conformity of the individual will to a superior moral power—in its conformity to law. For the Spartans, this higher power was the law of the State, the will of the State; and in both directions Spartan education wrought its work excellently. The government of man over himself consists especially in the control of the spirit over the body; in this rests at least the moral liberty which ancient nations attained to. Control over the body consists, first of all, in control over its members so that he may employ them at will, and use them with safety to the full limit which nature allows, and this control is secured by a systematically carried out system of gymnastics, of which we will speak more fully further on. The consciousness of one's own strength depends upon confidence in one's control over his physical powers, and hence it is actually a physical requisite to a strong will. But it is of further force in holding under restraint the propensities, lusts, and passions of the body, in wholly restraining or duly moderating them. Of a like tendency is a habit of great simplicity in the wants of life, and sobriety in pleasures of every kind. But it seems to have been wholly incompatible with the Spartan character to give prominence to one's own personality and individuality. A modest, reserved manner on the part of the youth was strictly insisted upon and a becoming outward demeanor was secured by prescribed rules. We know that when they appeared upon the street, they held their hands within their cloaks and walked on in silence, looking neither to the right hand nor the left, but on the ground before them. "One would sooner expect a stone to speak or the eyes of a brazen statue to move, than to hear the voice of one of these Spartan boys or to catch a

look from his eyes; he is more modest than a girl that has been brought up in the privacy of home." Indeed, too great heed can not be paid to outward conduct. Experience teaches that between the outward character and the inner disposition there exists such a relation that the one calls forth the other, so that even the being accustomed to a demeanor corresponding to a modest feeling, will generate that very feeling. Wisely, therefore, are the habits of conduct commenced in earliest youth, even before their moral efficacy can be appreciable. In the same way we may estimate the importance of the regulation which forbade boys and youth to speak in the company of older men except in reply to questions; no kind of self-control is acquired or exercised with more difficulty than that which requires the repression of one's opinions; yet none is of more value in practical life. Individuality naturally asserts itself most strongly and makes itself most prominent in youth. Hence the Spartans intrusted to their young men the most difficult tasks in the service of the State, calling into requisition their utmost powers, that so advantage might be taken of the vigor of their strength, their love of pleasure restrained by the seriousness, and their pride and self-boasting by the difficulty of the demands made upon them. On the other hand, there is the sensitiveness and irritability which is apt to show itself unpleasantly in peculiarly constituted dispositions, but which would prove absolutely destructive in a state like Sparta, where the citizens lived continually and intimately together. The only remedy here was the becoming habituated to that which excites sensitiveness, and therefore the boys were designedly subjected to provocations and accustomed to patiently endure raillery and even bitter mockery, and were required to maintain their self-control under the strongest of insults.

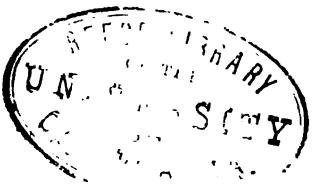
It was necessary, however, that a decided direction should be given to the individual will, in order that it might coincide with the laws and tendencies of the State, and the foundation for this culture was found in the habit of implicit obedience not only to those placed immediately over the youth but to all the elder citizens. They were taught to recognize the will of the State as presented in those who were, as it were, the bearers of the law which all served. It was justly looked upon as an evidence of a frank and noble disposition, characteristic of a man fitted to govern, when—instead of assuming to stand above and regardless of law and duty, as was frequently the case in other States—he bound himself publicly to the law even in its smallest particulars, and rendered swift and zealous obedience to the commands of his superiors. Moreover,

the moral sentiment of the individual, his opinion of good and evil, should be one with that of the community, and to this end great care was exercised. The youth were restricted as far as possible from all intercourse or acquaintance with whatever is bad, and every means was used, on the other hand, to confirm their judgment of that which is good and praiseworthy. The men, therefore, while sitting at their meals, often called the boys to join them, and while in their company everything indecorous was sedulously avoided, nothing was spoken of but the renowned deeds of the brave or the praiseworthy sayings of the good—no mention was made of any unworthy deed or unworthy expression. In this way they sought to impress upon their young minds the idea of Spartan virtue, of the upright and the honorable (*καλοκἀγαθία*) and in like manner a contempt of death, and the undervaluation of life and of temporal goods in comparison with the claims of honor and virtue, and the demands of the State; and with a moral sentiment of this kind were the minds of the youth imbued, a sentiment amounting in fact to a real enthusiasm. At times when they were not engaged in gymnastic exercises, the leaders of the divisions were accustomed to put questions to the boys (*e. g.* Who is the best man? What conduct deserves the highest praise?) to which they briefly gave such answers as the spirit of Spartanism required, and it was esteemed a great disgrace for one not to have clear and ready opinions upon all moral and political subjects. One of the principal means, however, for the formation of character, lay in the legally encouraged relations of friendship that existed between the old and young. While in other Grecian States this love degenerated into base sensuality, in Sparta it always preserved a purely moral character and rested only upon mutual affection. Every one of the older citizens was almost obliged to select a favorite from among the boys or youth, and to cherish a constant friendly intercourse with him. It was his duty to impress upon the youth his ideal of honor and uprightness, and to exhibit in himself an example worthy to be followed, while his pupil was required to listen willingly to all his counsel. So great efficacy was expected from this relation that the elder was made accountable for all the ot[illegible] was punished for them. At the same time, t[illegible] the heart for sympathy and love were thus grat[illegible] way as to bring direct advantage to the State [illegible] young together by the closest bond of union, [illegible] channel of transmission for the traditions [illegible] living. Finally, th[illegible] radual pron[illegible]

obedience to one of command. It commenced by their assisting in the management of the boys, while at the same time, slaves were placed under them who waited upon them at table; they were next placed in charge of the vassals who lived in the surrounding country, and afterwards received small commands over the bands of helots attached to the army.

The physical or gymnastic training of the Spartans, though coming, as we have seen, under the politico-moral view of the system, had yet for its special object, military efficiency. As the Spartans could not hope to prevail in war by virtue of their numbers, the demands made upon the individuals must be proportionally the more pressing, and the necessary means were therefore employed to secure from each uniformly the *full* use of *all* his faculties. By a restricted diet it was sought to harden the body and make it safe in a certain degree from pernicious external influences, to make it free, independent, and an ever docile subject of the will. It was in this direction that education among them was carried somewhat to an extreme, and it is to this that one has reference when he speaks proverbially of "a Spartan training." The boys wore no shoes and no covering for the head, and the hair was shaven close until entrance upon manhood. After the twelfth year all under garments were laid aside and a single cloak became the only clothing, and so continued through life. The couch was hard, made by the boy himself of the leafy heads of the reeds that grew upon the banks of the Eurotas; only in winter was he permitted to add to it any warmer material. Baths were taken only in the Eurotas—warm ones, such as were customary throughout the rest of Greece, were unknown, and as little use was made of unguents. The food was scanty, for the full satisfaction of hunger was considered injurious to health, and it was necessary for the boys to learn to subdue their hunger. Advantage was also taken of this in another way. That they might appease their hunger, the law allowed the theft of certain kinds of provisions, but whoever was detected was to be severely punished. Thus they acquired cunning and adroitness, such as a warrior needs when in an enemy's land. This regulation has been unjustly censured as employing an immoral means for a moral end. But in truth the idea of theft was removed, for the law which created the crime, was suspended in this special instance.* No Spartan was by this means made a thief, nor a pilferer of delicacies, for the permission to steal was limited to certain simple necessaries of life. We

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and each was a representative of the director, with the same official rights. Some of the older citizens were probably always present during the exercises of the boys, in which case it would be their duty to coöperate in the execution of the spirit of the laws. By this means also a salutary feeling of regard was excited between the young and the old, for every citizen would look upon each boy as his own son, and the boys would see in every grown person, a father.

The principal means by which education in general was effected, were of the simplest nature—*the excitement of ambition*, and *punishment*. Scarcely even in the schools of the Jesuits has the feeling of ambition been employed in the service of education to such an extent as was the case in Sparta. The reason is evident; for the results of this method are most favorable, if regard be had not to the *moral* worth of the action, nor to the sentiment underlying it, nor to the relation of the actor to God, but merely to the value or rather the usefulness of the action to the community, and therefore, in Sparta, to the State. The endeavor after distinction above others (*αἰὲν ἀριστεύειν καὶ ὑπείροχον ἔμμεναι ἄλλων*) was an inborn, national trait of every Greek, and in Sparta it was especially cherished. Ambition was with them the spur not merely in youth, but even to hoary old age. Honor, high honor awaited the good and the brave; shame and ignominy rested upon the evil and cowardly. But the love of honor was employed systematically in the cause of education. This ambitious feeling at different periods of age was made prominent even in the responsive singing at certain festivals. The example reported by Plutarch is indicative of this, where the old men sung,

"Once we were men, of strength and courage full,"

to which the men replied,

"Such now are we, come, prove us, if ye will,"

and the boys joined in with

"Yet time will show us better far than ye."

Moreover the exercises of the boys were always greeted with the applause or censure of the spectators, and to give these demonstrations a yet stronger effect, at the public games at which the adult youth exhibited their strength and dexterity, it was customary for the girls and maidens to sing songs of praise in honor of the victors and to receive the conquered with bitter mockery. The victors were crowned, according to the general Hellenic custom, the real prize consisting of the glory of victory, of which the sim-

ple crown was but a token. A still stronger ambition, perhaps, was exerted, at least in the masses, in the following manner. Those of the ablest youth were chosen as "Hippagretai," (ἱππαγρέται) each of whom again selected a hundred others, stating in each instance the reasons for his choice or rejection. It devolved now upon the rejected to establish their reputation again, if possible, by continued strife and competition with the chosen ones, who maintained their position only by showing themselves to be the ablest. For this reason both parties watched carefully for any weak point in their opponents, or for any offense against morals or the laws, that would expose them to disgrace. Hard battles were often fought between them in the ring, in which they were urged on by the spectators; but that their passions might not be carried too far and as a lesson in self-government, the combatants were required to cease the combat as soon as any citizen interfered and spoke the word. The relations of friendship, also, which existed betwen the older citizens and the youth as required by the laws, were taken advantage of as a spur to exertion, and it was considered a disgrace not to be chosen as the favorite of some older person. Where honor was thus esteemed, every reproach and disgrace must naturally have been felt so much the more keenly. Yet it fell inexorably upon all who showed signs of slothfulness or disregard of distinction, or acted in an effeminate or cowardly manner. As a second means of maintaining good discipline and as a motive for correct conduct and reformation, use was made of *punishment*. The chief form of punishment was by blows, though deprivation of food was resorted to in rare cases. Flogging played, indeed, a strong role in Sparta; it was considered indispensable in the formation of a frank, manly disposition, and was inflicted for the most diverse offenses, both small and great, but in very different degrees of severity. All the instructors had the most unlimited power of punishment, from the "paidonome" to the assistants among the youths, including also all the citizens. It was inflicted immediately upon the commission of the offense, but only by certain youths chosen for the purpose (μαστιγόφοροι,) who were always present with whips. Complaints on account of punishments received were never permitted, and if a boy complained at all to his father of having been handled too severely by any one, he was sure of the consolation of another sound beating. The elders also never permitted themselves to find fault with one of the εἴρενες in presence of the boys, for carrying his punishment too far. This was always done in private that their authority might not be weakened and the full efficacy of punishment be preserved.

A distinction is always to be drawn between moral, physical or gymnastic, and intellectual culture. In the system of Spartan education the three in fact essentially exist, and in mutual intimate relation form the above described ideal of a training whose principles are drawn from politics. *Moral* culture is most generally controlled by its political importance, though noble ideas and important truths ever lie at its foundation; but, in truth, if Spartan virtues be measured by the standard of *true morality*, they will be found, as Augustine keenly yet truly remarked, to be but brilliant vices. The foundation of a civil morality was rightly considered to be a firm manly *will*. In this principle we may distinguish a negative and a positive side. The strength of the will depends upon man's power of self-government. In its negative aspect, it averts whatever restricts freedom and debases man to be the slave of any immoral influence; the positive side consists in the conformity of the individual will to a superior moral power—in its conformity to law. For the Spartans, this higher power was the law of the State, the will of the State; and in both directions Spartan education wrought its work excellently. The government of man over himself consists especially in the control of the spirit over the body; in this rests at least the moral liberty which ancient nations attained to. Control over the body consists, first of all, in control over its members so that he may employ them at will, and use them with safety to the full limit which nature allows, and this control is secured by a systematically carried out system of gymnastics, of which we will speak more fully further on. The consciousness of one's own strength depends upon confidence in one's control over his physical powers, and hence it is actually a physical requisite to a strong will. But it is of further force in holding under restraint the propensities, lusts, and passions of the body, in wholly restraining or duly moderating them. Of a like tendency is a habit of great simplicity in the wants of life, and sobriety in pleasures of every kind. But it seems to have been wholly incompatible with the Spartan character to give prominence to one's own personality and individuality. A modest, reserved manner on the part of the youth was strictly insisted upon and a becoming outward demeanor was secured by prescribed rules. We know that when they appeared upon the street, they held their hands within their cloaks and walked on in silence, looking neither to the right hand nor the left, but on the ground before them. "One would sooner expect a stone to speak or the eyes of a brazen statue to move, than to hear the voice of one of these Spartan boys or to catch a

look from his eyes; he is more modest than a girl that has been brought up in the privacy of home." Indeed, too great heed can not be paid to outward conduct. Experience teaches that between the outward character and the inner disposition there exists such a relation that the one calls forth the other, so that even the being accustomed to a demeanor corresponding to a modest feeling, will generate that very feeling. Wisely, therefore, are the habits of conduct commenced in earliest youth, even before their moral efficacy can be appreciable. In the same way we may estimate the importance of the regulation which forbade boys and youth to speak in the company of older men except in reply to questions; no kind of self-control is acquired or exercised with more difficulty than that which requires the repression of one's opinions; yet none is of more value in practical life. Individuality naturally asserts itself most strongly and makes itself most prominent in youth. Hence the Spartans intrusted to their young men the most difficult tasks in the service of the State, calling into requisition their utmost powers, that so advantage might be taken of the vigor of their strength, their love of pleasure restrained by the seriousness, and their pride and self-boasting by the difficulty of the demands made upon them. On the other hand, there is the sensitiveness and irritability which is apt to show itself unpleasantly in peculiarly constituted dispositions, but which would prove absolutely destructive in a state like Sparta, where the citizens lived continually and intimately together. The only remedy here was the becoming habituated to that which excites sensitiveness, and therefore the boys were designedly subjected to provocations and accustomed to patiently endure raillery and even bitter mockery, and were required to maintain their self-control under the strongest of insults.

It was necessary, however, that a decided direction should be given to the individual will, in order that it might coincide with the laws and tendencies of the State, and the foundation for this culture was found in the habit of implicit obedience not only to those placed immediately over the youth but to all the elder citizens. They were taught to recognize the will of the State as presented in those who were, as it were, the bearers of the law which all served. It was justly looked upon as an evidence of a frank and noble disposition, characteristic of a man fitted to govern, when—instead of assuming to stand above and regardless of law and duty, as was frequently the case in other States—he bound himself publicly to the law even in its smallest particulars, and rendered swift and zealous obedience to the commands of his superiors. Moreover,

in time of war, the Government had determined to encourage local effort in establishing Nautical Schools. With this view the Marine Department of the Board of Trade had established two schools prior to 1853, one in London, and the other in Liverpool; and an arrangement had been made with the Admiralty, by which it was believed five or six pupil-teachers, who had completed their term of instruction at the Royal Naval School at Greenwich, would be able to attend the scientific courses in the Metropolitan Schools of Science and Art, and be instructed in those sciences which would better fit them to become masters of schools of navigation in the seaport towns. In 1854, the Trinity House of Hull reorganized its old school of navigation, after the plan of the Royal Naval School at Greenwich, with two divisions, the lower for a class of boys who need elementary instruction, and the upper, for boys in the technical studies of a seafaring life. With the latter was opened an evening school for adult seamen. Similar schools, with a junior or lower division to revise and complete the general and preparatory studies, and a senior or upper school for special scientific and practical instruction in navigation and seamanship, were established at Yarmouth, Leith, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Belfast, Dublin, Waterford, and other ports, fifteen in all up to 1862, giving instruction to over 3,000 persons, and all of them enlisting local co-operation and individual payment with governmental aid. As an example of this class of schools we cite a brief description of one of the earliest established, from a Report of the Inspector, Edward Hughes, one of the masters of the Greenwich Hospital Schools.

London Navigation School.

The London Navigation School is held on the upper floor of the Sailors' Home Institution, situated in Well Street, London Dock, consists of two separate apartments, occupied by the Upper and Lower sections.

The upper section is for the instruction of masters and mates of the merchant service in the following subjects, viz.:

Sextant Observing. Chart Drawing. Geometry. Algebra. Trigonometry. The Sailings. Use of the Nautical Almanac and Mathematical Tables. Principle and Construction of Chronometers. Methods of determining the Latitude and Longitude. Nautical Surveying. Compasses and Magnetism of Ships. Theory of Winds, Tides, and Currents. Methods of taking and recording Meteorological Observations. Principle and Construction of the Steam Engine as applied to the Paddle Wheel and Screw Propeller.

The Lower section is for the education of seamen and apprentices. The course embraces the following subjects:—

Reading. Writing. Dictation and Letter Writing. Arithmetic. Geography. The Sailings. Sextant Observing. Method of Keeping Ships' Books.

The hours of attendance are from 9 to 12 a. m., 2 to 4 p. m., and 6 to 9 p. m. on the first five days of the working week, and from 9 to 12 a. m. on Saturdays.

The fees are six shillings per week for masters and mates, sixpence for seamen, and apprentices are admitted free.

The instruction of both sections is conducted by teachers who have been educated and trained in the Greenwich Hospital Schools, and who hold certificates of competency for teaching Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, from Mr. Riddle, the Head Master of the Nautical School.

To be continued.

IV. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

BY ALPHONS LEROY.†

Professor in University at Liege.

I. ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

A. LEGISLATION.

THROUGH the influence of the "Gesellschaft Tot nut van 't algemeen," (*Society for the promotion of public interests,*)* which was organized in 1784, mainly through the efforts of John Nieuvenhuysen, a Memnonite minister of North Holland, the government was induced, in the first year of the nineteenth century, to enter upon the work of popular education. The celebrated orientalist Van der Palm, who in 1799, under the Batavian Republic, had the management of public instruction, and was afterward member of the Ministry of the Interior, with similar duties, effected the passage, in 1801 and 1803, of two laws, both of which breathed the spirit of the period in which they were issued. In 1805, a change in the government occurred, and Van der Palm withdrew from public life.

The president of the Republic, Pensionary (Roadpensionaris,) Schimmelpenninck, abolished the Ministry of the Interior, and appointed instead a Secretary of State, to whom he assigned the care of public instruction. To assist in the duties of this department of public schools, Van der Ende, was made Assistant Secretary, who had occupied a similar position in 1801, and now finished and perfected the work commenced by Van der Palm. He remained at the head of public schools until 1833. To him is due the elaboration of the law which was laid before the Chamber Deputies on the 19th November, 1805, adopted on the 25th February, 1806, and on the 3d April, approved by the Pensionary, together with the general regulations which had been laid down under authority from the government, and which were thus made part of the law itself. "This public school law," says Cousin, "was based upon such just and wise views, it showed so beautiful a consistency throughout, and such accordance with the spirit of the people, and it was found

* "The Society for the Public Good," as it is generally designated, commenced its labors in behalf of popular education, by preparing and circulating among the common people useful elementary books, not only on religious and moral subjects, but also on matters of every day life. Its second object was to establish model schools, with libraries for the use of work people who had left school, in all localities where it had subscribers. Its third object was to conduct inquiries into the true principles of the physical and moral education of children, and into school method. Under its lead the magistrates of Amsterdam in 1797, and of several other large towns undertook the work of school improvement. In 1809, the society numbered 7,000 members, having departments, or branches in every province and town, and has continued to exert an important influence on popular education to the present time.

† From Schmidt' "*Encyklopädie Pädagogicke,*" with modifications and additions.

to adapt itself so readily, through the universality of its principles, to the most diverse wants of the several provinces, that it has remained in force, and without any important alterations, up to the present date, and through three great popular revolutions. When the government in 1829, in its partiality to the liberals of Belgium, proposed a new, law making deplorable changes in the law of 1806, the chambers united in opposition to it, and the government was obliged to withdraw its proposition."

The law of 1806, has continued in force for half a century, and every one admits that it has operated admirably. Yet in the provisions of the 22d and 23d articles of the regulations, (Supplement A.,) lay hid the elements of a storm, which is even yet scarcely allayed, and which has been the cause, as we just intimated, of new legislation. The subject is of such importanee that we present a formal explanation.

"ART. 22, of Ordinance A. Instruction shall be directed as well to the development of the mental faculties as to the acquisition of useful information, and also to the training of the pupils in the practice of all the social and Christian virtues.

"ART. 23.—Provision shall be made that the pupils do not remain without instruction in the doctrines of that religious faith to which they belong. The teacher however shall not have the charge of this branch of instruction."

These articles asserted the principle of secular and mixed schools, and the ministers of the different creeds had at first no thought of contesting it; they readily promised the government their coöperation, and even the Catholics were disposed to acquiesce, if a conclusion may be drawn from the declaration of the Archbishop of Friesland. "It is necessary, in my opinion, to the preservation of harmony, friendship, and affection among the different religious societies, that instruction in the doctrines of the different churches should not be communicated by the teachers. In order to effect the object, so desirable, which the government has in view, and for which it demands our earnest coöperation, the work must be commenced in childhood, and although as our church requires of us the doctrinal instruction of its children, these enactments of a government that takes so great interest in the well-being of the young, will serve but to quicken our zeal in the performance of our duties."

The relation at that time existing in Holland, between the churches and schools, was entirely different from what it was in Prussia. Said Van der Ende to M. Cousin; "The public schools shall be by all means Christian schools, but neither Protestant nor Catholic; they shall be limited to no special form of worship, and shall teach no exclusive doctrine. There shall be no special Catholic and no special Protestant schools! A public school is for the people, wholly and completely. Moreover, tolerance is by no means indifference. You are in Holland, where a Christian spirit is widely disseminated, and where for centuries past, great toleration has prevailed between the different churches." "Even here in the Teachers' Seminary," added M. Prinsen, of Haarlem, "there is no special instruction in morals. I give instruction neither in morals nor in what is called natural religion. It should rather be called metaphysics. But by all the

teachers a religious and moral feeling is, at every opportunity, awakened, encouraged, and sustained. All the instructors teach morality, but no one gives special instruction therein. We receive here Protestants, Catholics, and Jews, but the latter are present with the classes in biblical history, (which is made a regular subject of study,) in the Old Testament only. These Jewish pupils become afterward teachers in the special schools supported by the Jews for their own children." M. Cousin was greatly surprised; he approved of the German system, yet was obliged to confess that there existed here no religious animosity between the children of the different churches, and that nevertheless moral and religious men were the result of these secular schools. Did the phlegmatic temperament of the Dutch contribute to this result? Could time alone develop the dangerous tendencies of the system? However this may be, since 1848, a diversity of feeling has existed, and sharply defined parties have arisen in mutual opposition.

But aside from that, the alterations made in the constitution during that year, would have necessitated a revision of the school laws. The fourth section of (ART. 194,) of the new constitution was thus worded:

"Instruction (het geven van onderwig's) shall be free, under the absolute control of government, and, so far as the public, and intermediate schools are concerned, under the condition of guarantees of capacity, and good morals, to be given by the teacher, and to be fixed by law."

Attention had also been directed to the insufficiency of the teachers' salaries, to the vagueness of the provisions of the law regulating the proceedings of the parishes, and lastly, to the want of uniformity in the governmental superintendence. This was also evidently a favorable opportunity for those who believed there were yet more important grievances to be redressed. Through the influence of the University at Utrecht, which had become the center of Calvanistic orthodoxy, an ultra-protestant party had been formed,—conservative, inasmuch as it desired the restoration of the form of government of 1789, and weak in numbers, but active and energetic. It had taken its name from Groen van Prinsterer, a prominent preacher and writer, who, with his adherents, had noticed with some misgiving, how the Catholics in every place where they had any influence, were strictly carrying into operation the provisions of the law of 1806, respecting religious instruction. The Catholics, enjoying perfect equality of rights, excluded from the instruction of the schools every thing of a doctrinal character, and even set the Bible aside. The Groenists determined to check the anticipated advances of the Romish church, by openly attacking the principle of mixed schools, which they represented to be nurseries of atheism and hot-beds of irreligion and immorality; they demanded, at every cost, sectarian schools, and a positive religious instruction. The majority of the Chambers expressed themselves in favor of the establishment of exclusive schools by private persons, inasmuch as the constitution guaranteed free instruction; but they maintained that the influence of surrounding circumstances, and the Christian sentiment of the entire nation gave a Christian tendency to the

instruction of the schools, and that it must, in fact, be Christian in its character, though the law could not so prescribe it. In the ranks of this strong party were the Catholics, who would banish religious instruction entirely from the schools rather than see given to it a coloring in any degree Protestant,—the liberals, who desired a complete separation of church and state, and the non-conformists of every kind, Memnonites, Lutherans, Jews, and even certain of the orthodox reformed, who upon this subject differed from the zealous adherents of the dominant church. The views of these last, deserve mention, since they accord with measures whose full importance the future only will reveal. We give them in the words of von Laveleye:

"German Theology is famous for its works of criticism upon the historical or mythical portions of the gospels. The most important of the literary productions of all foreign writers, are now translated into the Dutch language, and moreover, every educated man in the Netherlands, is well acquainted with German. This, together with the ready communication of religious information by other means, has caused the rationalistic labors of German science to exert a powerful influence upon the theology of Holland; and so great has this become, that the orthodox clergy are filled with the greatest anxiety, as they see several of the principal pulpits of the land occupied by preachers whose teachings have a more or less decidedly expressed tendency to Socinianism. Certain it is, that the opinion which represents Christ as a being higher than man, but less than God, has gained strength, and at the University of Gröningen has attained a predominant influence. The effect of this tendency, whether it be to unitarianism or rationalism, is to direct attention rather to the morals of Christianity, and its civilizing influences, than to its doctrines and power to save. Christ is looked upon rather as the perfect archetype, in conformity to which, humanity should be fashioned, rather than the Messiah who died upon the cross for the redemption of the elect. Hence it follows, that, in the matter of religious instruction is the schools, doctrinal teaching is willingly left to the priest, while it in considered highly important that the teacher should still be required to give instruction in Christian morals."

A third opinion was expressed by some moderate men, who, true to the ordinances of 1806, desired to make the culture of the social and Christian virtues the groundwork of instruction, and thus to prove that the religious element was not excluded from the schools. But as the ministry could not consent to this, to avoid strengthening the Groenists, they united with the liberals.

Several drafts of laws were successively presented to the chambers, without effecting a result. Four times in the course of seven years was the ministry overthrown, and meanwhile the Groenist minority was acting upon the popular mind by means of pamphlets, newspaper articles, and the circulation of petitions. They finally convinced the king that the nation was opposed to every system of school law in which the public schools were made atheistic; and this accusation too was unjust to their opponents, for a complete severance of church and state, by no means infers systematic opposition to the clergy; on the contrary, though the bill of the minister Van Reenen, which had been opposed mainly by the Groenists, went so far as even to make no mention of Christianity, yet it was drawn up, on the whole, in a sincerely Christian spirit, and was far from being indifferent to the subject. Nevertheless, the minority pre-

vailed with the king, so far that he promised his sanction to their design, and now, sure of success, they greeted in triumph the accession to the ministry, of Van der Bruggen, and Van Rappard, who were supporters of their system.

But a more intimate acquaintance with the affairs of the State, quickly moderated the zeal of the new ministers. They soon perceived that the principle of mixed schools, as it had been established by the law of 1806, was still too firmly incorporated with the habits of the people to permit the thought of its being uprooted, and they therefore now brought forward a bill, eclectic in its provisions, which neither pleased the Groenists, nor conciliated the liberals. The debate was opened on the 29th June, in the lower chamber; a debate that will form one of the most interesting portions of the religious history of Holland. We can here give only the result. What we have already said respecting the position of parties, is sufficient to indicate the different opinions that were advanced in the discussion. It may be remarked, by the way, as a surprising fact, that the language of the Catholic upon the subject, was almost always directly opposed to the views of their co-religionists, in non-protestant countries. Article 22, of the bill, (Article 23, of the law,) was adopted, the last section excepted, by a vote of 45 to 20; the conservatives of the liberal party had gained the victory. This article reads thus:

"Public instruction, while it communicates the knowledge that is needed, shall at the same time develop the understanding of the scholars, and train them to the practice of every Christian and social virtue."

"The teacher shall refrain from teaching, doing, or permitting any thing derogatory to the respect that is due the religious convictions of the non-conformists."

"Instruction in religion is left to the different sects. The use of the school buildings may be granted for this purpose, to accommodate the children that attend them, at hours not appropriated to other classes."

The section that was rejected, by a vote of 60 to 2, provided for separate instruction, (facultative splitsing,) which the majority had never at all desired. It was thus expressed:

"Wherever children do not attend school on account of the religious opinions of their parents, and it is found after careful inquiry that their complaints can not otherwise be removed, a separate school may be established, if it be possible, which shall receive State support, so far as is necessary. This support shall be provided by law."

In the upper chamber the discussion was more calm; opposition was withdrawn. The law was published on 13th August, 1857, to go into operation at the commencement of the following year.

The legislature of 1857, was also occupied with various other important subjects. For several years previous, a decrease in the number of scholars had been observed, which must naturally excite attention in a country where almost all the children frequent the public schools, while elsewhere it might easily be accounted for by the supposition that the children had left the public schools in order to enter the private, which was a daily occurrence. The evidence that freedom of instruction was degenerating

into liberty to remain in ignorance, became a source of anxiety, and some of the delegates endeavored on this account to reconcile compulsory attendance at school with the principles affirmed in the Constitution. Their motto was; "instruction compulsory and gratuitous;" such is the feeling of some Belgian politicians also, who in view of similar difficulties, have been endeavoring since 1857, to effect in their country a similar solution. But the Dutch delegates did not effect their object. The 33d Article of the law merely says:

"The parish authorities shall use all possible means to induce parents, who are poor and receiving support, to send their children to school."

Several of the large cities, Rotterdam, among others, have made their support of the parents conditional upon the school-attendance of the children. Other subjects that were discussed at the same time, we will mention as occasion offers, in connection with the brief statement, which we now give, of the law of 1857.

a. *Classification of Schools.*

The common schools are either public or private, (Article 3.) The first class include those schools that are sustained, by the parishes, provinces, and the State, severally, or conjointly, (gezamenlijk;) the private schools are entitled to assistance from the provinces and parishes, in case of necessity, but in that case, must be open to children of all religions.

The number of schools in each parish, (Article 6,) must correspond to the wants and number of the population. The parish determines how many are *necessary*, (Article 17,) but the provincial anthorities (gedeputeerde staten,) and the government have the right to increase the number if they consider it expedient. These provisions secure, it is evident, greater certainty of instruction than does the Belgian law, but they are less precise in reference to the right of poor children to attend the schools free of expense, (Article 33.)

The warm interest felt by the legislature in the cause of instruction is shown in (Article 18,) which requires that whenever a teacher has more than 70 scholars, he shall have the assistance of an "aspirant" (Kweekeling, pupil;) this title is given to young men that have not yet received certificates of qualification, or, in other words, have not yet passed the official examination, but who are authorized, until they attain the required age, (eighteen years for an assistant's, and twenty-three for a teacher's diploma, Article 48,) to perform certain duties as "beginners,"—called also in Belgium "secondants." If the number of scholars exceed 100, the teacher is allowed an "assistant," and an additional aspirant if it exceeds 150; with fifty more scholars, another teacher is employed, and with a hundred more, a second assistant.

The course of study is divided into the "ordinary" and the "advanced" course. Instruction in the latter, must be given wherever possible, and where its introduction is judged to be expedient, (Article 16.) The ordinary course must embrace reading, writing, arithmetic, the elements of

geometry, the Dutch language, geography, history, natural philosophy, and vocal music; while the higher course include lectures upon the elements of modern languages, the elementary mathematics, the primary principles of agriculture, gymnastics, the art of design, and for females, the usual domestic accomplishments.

The teacher is appointed (Article 22,) by the parish council, from among the candidates, three to six in number, that have been selected, after examination, by the mayors and justices, with the approval of the district superintendent.

b. *Local Authorities.*

The control of the schools was so skillfully and wisely arranged, under the law of 1806, that M. Cousin, in the warmth of his admiration for this "bold action," which had never suggested itself to the mind of the French legislators, could, without exaggeration, exclaim; "this is the right method of regulating common school instruction, and in popular education, is the point, that is, in my opinion, of the most vital importance, its more or less skillfully devised organization." The new law has retained the local committees, (Article 53,) there being both district and provincial superintendents, who are appointed for six years, and meet annually. Complaint might perhaps be made of the want of a general superintendent, on the ground that, on account of the continual changes to which the ministry is subject, none but a permanent officer of this kind can secure uniformity in the system of school regulations, and in their administration. The system of 1806, had in fact such a keystone, to be recognized in the established hierarchical organization of the school authorities, but it is scarcely necessary to say, that a superintendence of the schools by the clergy is now wholly out of the question in Holland.

c. *Teachers.*

The law of 1857, neither outhorizes teachers' associations, nor directs a uniform plan of operation for the teachers' seminaries. But through the influence of the superintendents, who have generally manifested a zeal worthy of all praise, numerous teachers' societies have been formed, (in 1858, numbering 249, with 3,544 members,) with the two-fold object of affording to teachers opportunities for advanced instruction, and of disseminating the most approved methods of teaching. In the schools for the poor, pupils are selected from among the most proficient, to be trained for the office of teacher, and to these, especial attention is given. In order to obtain a certificate of proficiency, there is required a knowledge, (Article 44, 45, 46,) not only of the subjects embraced in the course of ordinary school instruction, more extended than usual, and with a more rational and thorough understanding of them, but also of pedagogy and methodics; it is also required, that the teacher, whether male, or female, be able to express himself with ease, and in a polished manner, both orally, and in writing. Nearly all the teachers' societies have of late, vied with each other in their endeavors to comply creditably with the

new requirements of the law. In several places these poor pupil-teachers supply the free schools with aspirants as assistant teachers. The parishes generally contribute to their support, and very frequently the provincial authorities also, as in Utrecht, and Amersfort. But the Royal Teachers' Seminary at Haarlem, is more especially worthy of mention, where pupils are received from all parts of the kingdom upon the recommendation of the superintendents, and formally admitted after a three months' trial, upon the satisfactory report of the director. This institution was established under a royal decree of May 31, 1816, and placed under the control of M. Prinsen, a normal instructor of great talent. Ten full scholarships of 250 florins, and fourteen half scholarships of 125 florins yearly, during the entire four years' course of study were founded for such pupils as obtained a diploma of the first degree. This school at Haarlem, has accommodations for day scholars only, (externat,) but otherwise is similar in its arrangement to the Prussian seminaries. The entire expense to the State, for its forty pupils, is 10,000 florins annually. Not only is theoretical instruction given, but actual practice in teaching; the pupils being employed in the schools of the city, for the purpose of accustoming them to their duties as teachers. The discipline is very simple, embracing only a few special regulations, and has been found all that could be desired. Perhaps the natural temperament of the Dutch will sufficiently account for this fact also. In connection with M. Prinsen, others may be mentioned who have aided in securing the success of this establishment,—among them, Mll. Van Dapperen, once a pupil of Pestalozzi, Polman, and B. Schreuder, all extensively known through their school-books, and the influence which they have had in the advancement of method among the public schools. But in addition to these schools, a system of normal instruction has now been perfected by a recent decree, which provides for three large normal seminaries, and twenty-two schools of practice, the latter, receiving an annual appropriation of 8,000 florins. The society "Tot nut van 'talgemeen," has also afforded great assistance to teachers and aspirants, by the publication of a good selection of manuals and abridgments (elementary text-books,) upon general and special subjects. Judging from their catalogue, they attach great importance to the pedagogical works of Germany.

d. *Encouragement of Teachers.*

Of the means that are made use of for the encouragement of teachers, we will allude only to the presentation of gifts, and the annual distribution of silver medals, to the most zealous.

B. STATISTICS.

According to M. Blaupot Ten Cate, the number of children that in 1855, remained without instruction, must be put at 88,000, while in 1852, there were only 21,000, or 107 to 1,000 inhabitants. But the fact that the school attendance has for several years diminished, is nevertheless certain, and must be a source of surprise to those who are acquainted with the

progress that has been made since 1806. The last report of M. van Tets, minister of the interior, accounts for this falling off by the simultaneous advance in popularity of the private schools after 1848. Since the public schools have again become to be decidedly preferred, more value seems to be placed upon the education of children, and a happy change has commenced. An increase of upward of one per cent. (sic.,) in the attendance is shown by the reports of 1857, above those of 1850.

a. *Number of Schools.*

The number of common schools in the kingdom, (excepting the colonies and the archduchy of Luxemburg,) was 3,422, in 1857; among which there were 2,478 public schools, 278 private schools of the first class, and 666 of the second. The following table embraces all the information that will be desired. The total population of the kingdom on January 1st, 1857, was 3,298,317.

PROVINCES.	Public Schools.	Private Schools.		Total No. of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Free Scholars.	Per cent. of Free Schools.
		I. Class.	II. Class.				
North Brabant,	298	27	100	425	49,460	14,744	29.8
Gelderland, ...	337	44	61	442	54,094	17,454	32.3
South Holland,	259	78	147	484	67,540	31,267	46.3
North Holland,	294	42	174	510	57,575	27,963	48.6
Zealand, ...	137	4	19	160	19,253	6,269	32.6
Utrecht, ...	81	24	54	159	17,319	7,227	41.7
Friesland, ...	358	3	9	370	38,978	13,360	31.7
Gröningen, ...	207	20	28	255	31,209	10,840	31.7
Over Yssel, ...	210	16	19	245	23,025	8,587	26.8
Drenthe, ...	135	7	4	146	14,008	2,636*	18.8
Limburg, ...	162	13	51	226	24,868	6,715	27.0
Total, ...	2,478	278	666	3,422	406,329	146,062	36.0

This total of 406,329 scholars, who were in attendance on January 15, 1857, was composed of 228,353 boys, and 177,976 girls. On the 15th July, of the same year, (the summer term,) the number had diminished to 317,618; of which, 158,721 were boys, and 158,897 were girls. These numbers include those who attended the evening schools, (24,868 on 15th January; 18,070 boys, and 6,798 girls,) as well as those who only attended the evening lectures, (numbering 27,272 at the same date, of whom 19,749 were boys, and 7,523 were girls.)

The ratio of the number of scholars to the whole population, is, in winter, about as one to eight; in summer, as one to ten. The first class of private schools, include the "Diakonieschulen," *i. e.*, such as are supported by the revenues of endowment funds, (170;) those that are sustained by the society "Tot nut van 'talgemeen," (17;) and some that belong to private persons, (91.) The schools of the second class, are generally of the latter description.

In this list there are also 784 infant schools, (Warteschulen,) of which,

* Not including 3,336 scholars who pay but half.

the one at Zwolle, has long been well known; 152 schools for review, (Herhalingscholen,)—originated by the society, "Tot nut van 'talgemeen," and intended for adults, with the design of preventing that frequent relapse into ignorance that is seen in the later years of those who have left the usual schools; 118 Sunday schools; 71 individual schools, for mechanics; 127 public singing schools; 23 schools for gymnastics; and finally, 35 boarding schools, 286 boarding and day schools, (171 for boys, and 115 for girls.)*

b. *Number of Teachers.*

The number of instructors, in 1857, was 7,391, consisting of 6,480 male teachers, of every kind, and 911 female teachers. The ratio of teachers to scholars was, on the 15th January, as one to fifty-five; on the 15th July, as one to forty-seven. The new law provides liberally, as it should, for the teachers of the schools. Their salary can not be less than 400 florins, ($160,) nor that of an assistant, less than 200 florins. Some teachers receive more than 1,000 florins per year. The minimum established by law in Belgium, is 200 francs, ($38,) somewhat less than one-fourth that of Holland! Moreover, the teacher in Holland, has the right of appeal, whenever the district is disinclined to provide him a suitable residence, or pay him the equivalent which is his due; in such case, he can make complaint to the standing provincial committee, who settle the matter conclusively, (Article 19.)

c. *Expense of Schools.*

It would be difficult to state accurately the cost of the schools, inasmuch as their support is by law (Article 31,) obligatory upon the parishes. The appropriations of the State toward their maintenance amounted, in 1857, to 156,000 florins, ($62,000.) This, too, was a subject, that gave occasion to a lively discussion in the chambers, in 1857. The requirement certainly imposes a very heavy burden upon the local authorities; still, they can, to a certain extent, evade the law, since they are at liberty, (Article 8, § 8,) to support private schools, and the danger, therefore, is not so great as it, at first glance, appears; besides, (Article 86,) of the law declares that whenever the government is satisfied, by information derived from the standing committee and the provincial authorities, that a parish will be obliged to submit to great sacrifices in order to put its common schools in operation, as it should be done, the State and province shall aid the parish by an appropriation of half the amount necessary. There is, however, something arbitrary in these regulations, though they possess this advantage, that they express definitely the extent of liability, while in Belgium, the parish, and the State, are in mutual opposition; for when even a wealthy parish has col-

* We mention, as examples of these female boarding schools, the one at Voorscholen, near Leyden, under the patronage of Queen Sophie,—the school at Haarlem, and the one long established at Wageningen. It is a peculiarity deserving of note, that nearly all female schools are conducted by female teachers exclusively, and are under the supervision of the royal superintendent.—*Editor.*

lected the additional tax, required by law for the support of its schools, it not unfrequently claims that it has fulfilled all its obligations, and that the State must contribute whatever may be needed beyond, notwithstanding that sound common sense would indicate that the State ought to give its aid only where the resources of the parish were not sufficient. But this common sense decision, does not accord with the wording of the law; and right here, in this difference between the two laws, is clearly shown the difference in the political characteristics of the two people. In Belgium, the parish is as independent as it is possible for a subordinate administration to be; in Holland, the love of order and a desire for a uniform distribution of taxes, serve as a counterpoise to their feeling of independence, and perhaps exert, as time will teach us, too strong an influence. By (Article 82,) of the law of 13th August, 1857, the parish is made responsible for the following expenses;—the salaries of the teachers and assistant teachers; compensation for the services of aspirants; the erection and repairs of school-buildings; the providing school furniture, books, &c.; the heating and lighting the school-buildings; the erection and repairs of the teacher's residence, or an equivalent therefor, in case the parish does not furnish a dwelling-house; a valuable contribution to the pension fund; and the office expenses of the local school committee. In 1857, the State contributed 25,490 florins 25 cents, and the provinces 52,581 florins 17 cents, for the erection and improvement of school-houses in the parishes.

C. MISCELLANEOUS.

a. *Teachers' Certificates.*

A provincial jury, composed of the superintendent of the province, and four district superintendents, meets semi-annually for the examination of aspirants. Foreigners, as well as native born, are allowed this certificate. A testimonial of good moral character, and the certificate of baptism are required to be produced. The subjects on which the candidate passes an examination, are expressed in the certificate. There are four kinds, alike for males and females, viz.: the teacher's certificate, (registration fee, 10 florins;) the assistant teacher's, (5 florins;) the private teacher's certificate of proficiency in different branches, (5 florins;) or in a single branch, (3 florins.) These certificates are valid throughout the kingdom. A private teacher may be allowed to teach in a public school, writing, arithmetic, singing, and female domestic accomplishments.

b. *Course of Instruction.*

The passage of the new law has been too recent to permit us to form an opinion of its actual operation. But as the spirit of the system, as respects the method of instruction, has remained much the same, independent of this or that official ordinance, the testimony of observers like Cousin, Namon de la Sagra, (Journey to Holland, &c., 1839,) Görlitz, and others, still retains, in general, its value. We have also consulted the

ministerial reports. The influence of Pestalozzi has continued predominant. The method of simultaneous instruction has met with more favor in Holland, than the monitorial, "which certainly communicates information," as Van der Ende, says, "but does not educate; but the object of instruction is education." But as respects method, the Hollanders are peculiarly eclectic; their calm temperament, their prudent and considerate character, protect them from any ill-bestowed admiration; they are no friends to a stupid adherence to ancient usages, but they would listen to the teachings of experience, and examine before they decide. Imagine yourself in the position of the child,—adapt your instruction to the gradual development of his faculties, and never lose sight of his destiny as a citizen and a man; teach him not merely to read, but put him in a condition to reason understandingly upon what he has read; these simple principles are sufficient, in the opinion of the Hollanders, to destroy forever the pretensions of the Lancasterian system. They have retained nothing of it, but merely the principle of repetition in some physical branches. But the attempt to avoid one extreme, exposes them to the danger of falling into another. And so the influence of the spirit evinced by the regulations of 1806, might be looked upon as in some degree dangerous, so long as the new system was carried out with all that zeal that is wont to be called forth by newly achieved success. It has been asserted that the teachers, in their desire to make instruction in the public schools such as should improve the understanding, would produce a change in the character of the people, make them peevious and conceited, and dissatisfied with their condition; that the culture and development of the finer feelings would be checked rather than promoted by a method of instruction in which, in direct neglect of all moral training, the intellect and the formalism of logical deductions always receive the chief attention; and finally, it has been apprehended that were the habits thus created to be carried too generally into unrestrained practice, sooner or later discipline would be endangered, and the respect that is due to others would be supplanted by insolence and insubordination. It must be admitted that these apprehensions have many times been verified, though not so frequently as has been represented; and as proof of this, we may point as well to that entire absence of the ideal, that is characteristic of many of the Dutch, as to the ultra-rationalism, and much more to the selfish (individualistic) tendencies that are now becoming prevalent among the young men of the cities. Some may be disposed to ascribe these manifestations to national phlegm, which prefers the culture of the intellect to that of the sensibilities, and the wide-spread spirit of Calvinism; and they may assert, in fine, that this system of teaching is the best adapted to the character of the people.—Granted!—but it is not well to encourage by a partial course of treatment, those propensities, which, indulged too far, become faults. It can not be concealed that many very intelligent men in Holland are becoming daily more strongly of this opinion, and in this we recognize a returning current of feeling that promises much for the future. Nevertheless, the reform of 1806, has merited the

thanks of the people of the Netherlands. An intelligent administration, ever on the watch to arouse a spirit of emulation among its officers; zealous teachers, who in general are more highly educated than those in many other countries; a strict discipline, that is based more upon the moral influence exerted by the teachers than upon any express regulations;—these agencies were sufficient to assure improvement and to accomplish a brilliant result. But above all, we may rest confident in the future; the sound common sense of the nation forms a counterbalance to the radicalism of the new regulations, and on the other hand, the views and experience of other nations have gradually softened the obstinacy of old prejudices, and introduced more of life into the methods of instruction.*

c. *Pensions.*

Teachers employed in the public schools are allowed a pension on reaching the age of sixty-five years, after forty years of service. The annual deposit in the State treasury, amounts to two per cent. The pension is increased each year, by about one sixtieth of the salary, but can never exceed two-thirds of it.

D. CONCLUDING REMARKS.

The public schools hold generally a higher position than the private schools. The reason of this is simple, and M. Cousin has made it very prominent by a bare statement of facts. "At first the establishment of schools, in which charges were made for instruction, was left to private enterprise, and they were almost everywhere private schools. Inasmuch as the schools for the poor were not only sustained by the public authorities, but also directed and controlled by them, the school regulations were drawn up by men who were well skilled in such business. The rules were strictly followed. The teachers had been trained in good schools, or in teachers' seminaries; the method of teaching was carefully watched; the discipline maintained in the schools were excellent; what was learned, was learned not superficially, but thoroughly. The poor schools, became, therefore, in a short time, in many places, better than the tuition schools under private management, and the unusual result followed, that the children of the middle class were not so well educated as those of the poor. Such a violation of order would in the end have produced an actual disturbance in society; and to avoid this danger, the cities established public tuition schools—a measure that has been productive of the best results, both on account of the emulation which it has excited between the different kinds of schools, and because those families, which are not compelled by poverty, or in their poverty have too much self-respect to send to the poor schools, but still can not afford to pay the tolerably high charges of most of the private schools, find in these public schools the

* The reader will find farther information in the work of M. Göritz, an impartial and intelligent writer, who is as ready to promote improvements in the educational system of his country as to combat the rank prejudices that have risen up to oppose them. This work contains a list of the best school-books used in Holland, among which is a number prepared from the German.

benefits of instruction at a moderate cost, suited to their circumstances, and not offensive to their feelings." It is worthy of remark that the sacrifices which the cities made, were soon recovered; as in the case of Rotterdam, which imposed a weekly fee of only twenty cents, (= eight cents, American,) upon each scholar, yet the income from the tuition schools, whose expenses amount to about 6,500 florins, yields a surplus above the expenses, which is appropriated by the city to its children's asylums. These tuition schools are now, as we have seen, everywhere prevalent; public confidence in them is continually becoming more firmly fixed, while every year sees the discontinuance of a number of the private institutions.

II. SECONDARY OR INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

A. LEGISLATION.

Instruction in the intermediate schools of Holland stands in close relation to the course of study in the universities; the royal ordinance of August 2, 1815,—by which the course of study was entirely changed,—embraced alike institutions of two grades, viz., the so-called "Latin schools," which correspond to the German gymnasia,—and the Universities, with some high schools of like rank, but which confer no degree, and are known as "Atheniums." We have to do here only with the Latin schools, and will afterward notice to some extent the different special schools. If the democratic spirit of Holland is manifested in the organization of its common schools, the strong influence of old customs and old prejudices, makes itself felt in the arrangement of the higher schools. Intermediate school instruction is confined entirely to the cities, and every city esteems it an honor to have a Latin school; it might be supposed that this was one of the ancient prerogatives of citizenship. The Latin school is under the control of a board of overseers, who nominate to the city council the candidates for vacant teacherships. This council appoints and pays the teachers. In regard to the university, the state possesses the influence that is due to it; but for the schools, it can only issue ordinances relating to the objects and means of instruction, and require the securities that are thought necessary. Each school has a rector and an associate rector, (the provisor and censor of the French lyceum,) and one or more professors in addition, according to the means of the institution, and the number of pupils. Very often the rector is the only professor, in which case he instructs the first class, and the associate rector the second. These officers must have obtained the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, which requirement virtually excludes the mathematics from the highest place in the school. Of the other teachers, it is only required that they have the candidates, degree.* These institutions are designed

* Each faculty can confer two academical degrees; 1, the candidates' degree, which is the lowest. This degree in literature, (in litteris,) from the faculty of philosophy, can be obtained at the shortest, in one year after entering upon the academical course, and is made a condition to admission to the study of theology and law; whoever wishes to study medicine must have received the candidates, degree in mathematics and natural philosophy; and in order to become a preacher, one must have the same degree in literature and theology. 2, the Doctors'

only for day-scholars (keine internate;) boarding schools are not looked upon with favor by the Dutch, in whom love of family and home life is an essential characteristic. The course of instruction includes principally the Latin and Greek languages, and in respect to these there is left little to be desired. Of the remaining branches, until within a short time, this could not be said. By the ninth and tenth articles of the ordinance of 1815, it was required that the pupils should, at the close of their daily exercises in Latin and Greek, receive instruction in the elements of mathematics, in geography, and in ancient and modern history;—but there is none in natural philosophy, none in the modern languages!

The amount of instruction in mathematics was left entirely to the rector. It was considered a subordinate department, and was usually taught by the professors of other branches, who received therefor an additional salary. In case of necessity, a special teacher was provided, but the position was an inferior one, and he received no tuition fees. This was the condition of things before the separation of Holland and Belgium. And what was the result? Instruction in the mathematics, as it had become reduced to almost nothing in the Latin schools, fell into neglect at the universities also. This occasioned frequent and earnest complaint, especially in Belgium, for many still remembered the more perfect organization of the French lyceum. The government heeded these complaints, and by an ordinance of 9th September, 1826, included a knowledge of arithmetic, algebra and geometry, among what was required for admission to the academical course. Unfortunately the law permitted the enrolment of a student, even without a satisfactory mathematical preparation, if the professor of mathematics at the university only declared that the student was capable of following his lectures. "If human nature is the same in Holland that it is in France," says M. Cousin, very justly, upon this point, "every examination that is made by one person only, is worthless. How can it be expected that a professor of mathematics, to whose chamber comes a student of philosophy, of law, or of theology, will carry his stoicism so far as to refuse to him or his whole family, after the thousand times repeated intercessions that will be made, a certificate that can in no way prejudice mathematics, but the denial of which must injure the overseer of the university of which the professor is himself a member?" It was to be expected that this certificate would never be refused, and that the students, knowing this, would never take the pains to deserve any other. But while the error here lay in too great lenity, the mistake was made on the other hand, of excessive strictness in demanding of a doctor of philosophy evidence of his capacity to *teach* with success the elements of arithmetic, algebra and geometry. They failed to obtain their object, from adhering too closely to the letter of the ordinance of 1815. The reform plan of 1826, meanwhile remained in operation; it was not

degree, which presupposes the former. This degree is essential to the attainment of many offices and positions, and it also entitles the possessor to many marks of distinction; in an assembly of jurists, for example, one that has the doctorate, takes precedence of those members who have not received the degree.

until twenty years later, in 1845, that a new committee was appointed to draft a new plan, which, however, was very far from receiving all the votes of the chamber; and to increase the complication, there had now been raised the question respecting religious instruction. Two concurrent circumstances favored the reform plan, and were the means of partially effecting what should have been done long before. Many towns had added to their schools an industrial department, a kind of real-school (with a four years' course,) and increased also the amount of mathematical study required of the pupils in the Latin schools. These improvements were made in the year 1843. Moreover a royal decree of May 28, 1845, required that an annual examination should be made of the proficiency of the students in all the departments of gymnasial instruction, before a central committee, who should make their report to the minister of the interior. But while it was with reason expected that the edifice would soon receive its cap-stone, this commencement, which had already in 1852 suffered important changes, was suddenly demolished by the minister, Van Reenen. It has been said that it would be restored in the next law. However this may be, the professors are zealous in their endeavors to remedy the faults of the present arrangement. But whatever may be done, the organization of the greater number of the small Latin schools is, and will always remain, necessarily very defective. For how can it be otherwise, while there are schools which number only a rector and professor, in the same person, with some three, five, seven, eight, perhaps fifteen, or twenty scholars? Holland could here follow the example of Belgium, where instruction in the ancient languages is perhaps less advanced, but where on the other hand, since the centralization of 1850, and the establishment of industrial schools, giant strides have been taken at least in respect to the course of study and the conformity of the general plan to the proposed object. Moreover it should not be forgotten that the course of instruction in the gymnasia is not designed merely to prepare youth for the studies of the university; and that the academical lectures require that the hearer should bring with him something more than a certain amount of knowledge of the ancient languages, however valuable this possession may be.

a. *Classification of Schools.*

The intermediate schools are divided into Latin schools, properly so called—which are regulated in accordance with the royal decree of October 6, 1843,—and gymnasia, provisional and definitive. These institutions are not equally complete, but are all arranged upon the same principle. In one school we find a special teacher for the mathematics, and professors for the modern languages; and in some, Hebrew even is taught; in another there is a rector only, or at best, assisted by a single aspirant. As at the time when M. Cousin made his journey, and found in the school at the Hague one professor for each class, who was obliged to teach all the branches of the course with the exception of mathematics, and in the school at Utrecht, saw, on the other hand, the system of

departmental instructors carried to the extreme, so at this day there exists manifold differences as respects internal arrangement and extent of study. In the principal gymnasia, as at the Hague, Amsterdam and Utrecht, there are usually five Latin classes; generally the scholars remain in the upper or rhetorical class (Prima,) twice as long as in the others, so that there are in all, six years of study. M. Cousin, in the upper class of one institution, met with those ranks (ordines,) in which instruction was carried gradually forward in such a way that the pupils learned by degrees to labor self-dependently, and thus became better fitted to enter upon the life of the university. In the first division weekly compositions (hence call "Hebdomidarien") were prepared; in the second, monthly exercises only were required, while in the third the instruction received was in the form of general directions merely. Instruction was given more by informal discourses, than by lectures. This method favored most effectually the development of each individual in accordance with the peculiar bent of his intellect and disposition, and was on this account an admirable means of education, and produced a class of well-trained, capable scholars. It is evident, however, that this method can be followed only when the number of pupils is limited. Since that time there have been no changes of importance; which may be considered fortunate, for there can be no better instruction, so long as the system can be pursued judiciously. The number of scholars in attendance at the Latin schools is always considerable, and is made up in general, of spirited, wide-awake youth, who know what labor is.

The learned professions are not overlooked in Holland as they are in other countries, and the young men who enter them, have fewer disappointments to fear. The students have a session of three hours in the morning, and as many, four days in the week, in the afternoon—but only two during the three winter months. The vacations continue six weeks, and in their arrangement are accommodated, so far as possible, to local circumstances. In 1857, there were taught in seventeen Latin schools, only those branches which are prescribed by the ordinance of organization, viz., Latin and Greek, elementary mathematics, history and mythology; no especial instruction was given in their own language; in five others this was added; two afforded instruction also in French,—three, in German,—two, in English,—and two, in Hebrew. Only in two schools was natural history taught. In all the provisory gymnasia these four living languages are taught, and in three of them natural history and Italian book-keeping. Finally, the definitive gymnasia give instruction likewise in the same four modern languages, and at Dortrecht, the Italian in addition; at four gymnasia, Hebrew is taught,—at eight, natural history,—and at three, book-keeping. At Rotterdam and Maastricht, commercial instruction is also given; at the latter place and at Deventer, instruction in chemistry and mathematics; at two gymnasia linear drawing is taught,—and at one, calligraphy. In all these institutions there were two departments, (Afdeelingen,) of which one included the Latin

classes,—the other, (as in Belgium,) the practical studies, which were continued, whenever possible, through four years; but only in Bois-le-duc and in Maastricht was the course of the study in the second department fully organized and separated from the first.

b. *Regulation of the Schools.*

A superintendent of the Latin schools is attached to the department of the interior. There exists no normal seminary for the special training of the teachers in the intermediate schools. In regard to this, as well as the salaries, tuition fees, &c., almost the same may be said of Holland, as of Belgium before the passage of the law of June, 1850. The differences of minor importance it will not be worth the while to particularize.*

B. STATISTICS.

The condition of the Latin schools and gymnasia during the school year 1857–8, is shown in the following table.

PROVINCES.	Latin Schools.	Previous Gymnasia.	Definitive Gymnasia.	No. of Prof's.	Scholars in 1st Dep't	Scholars in 2nd Dep't.	Mixed scholars.	Total scholars.	Pop. of the cities.
North Brabant,	10	1	1	31	166	48		214	75,402
Geldern,.....	9	1	4	42	169	78		247	101,251
South Holland,	2	...	7	57	221	122	23	366	203,516
North Holland,	1	2	2	25	101	62	4	167	314,810
Zealand,.....	...	...	2	7	25	8		33	23,185
Utrecht,.....	2	...	...	12	96			96	60,090
Friesland,.....	5	1	1	17	108	8		116	60,061
Over Yessel, ..	4	2	1	27	101	118		219	61,641
Gröningen,....	...	...	2	12	67	21	33	121	40,653
Drenthe,.....	...	...	2	6	30	38	11	79	11,907
Limburg,.....	...	...	1	16	54	94		148	27,925
....Total,	33	7	23	252	1,138	597	71	1,806	980,441

In the year 1817, there were 68 Latin schools in the northern provinces of what then was the kingdom of the Netherlands; from 1831 to 1835, there were 62 within the limits of the present kingdom, (with 1,315 scholars in 1831, and 1,255 in 1835;) in 1848, the number of Latin schools was 71, with 1,888 scholars (1,563 in the first department, and 325 in the second;) in 1849, there were but 70, with 1,887 scholars, (1,500 and 387 in the two departments;) as several of the schools had no scholars, they have been discontinued since the death of their rectors. The intelligent reader will draw more than one important inference from a comparison of the figures in the above table. In some provinces all literary studies are concentrated in large institutions, as in the Atheneum at Maastricht in Limburg, a completely and ably organized school with sixteen professors; in other provinces, the whole are scattered in fragments, and the insignificant means of these small schools is an effectual hindrance to any actual advance in accordance with the spirit of the age. It will be noticed also that the numbers of the scholars in the first and

* See Public Instruction in Belgium, Vol. XV., p. 675.

second departments have an inverse ratio, compared with those of Belgium.

Limburg has literary institutions which are not included in the above table; the Royal College at Roermond, (with a boarding school and instruction in the Catholic religion,) the Industrial School at Venloo, and the Seminary at Herzogenrath, on the borders of Prussia. This last mentioned institution, founded in 1831 by Van Brommel, bishop of Liege, was originally a seminary for priests; but since the ratification of the treaty of the twenty-four articles of 1839, and the annexation of this portion of Limburg to Holland, the theological students have removed to St. Trond. King William II., however, would not permit a school to decline that had once flourished upon the territory that had now fallen to him. "Je vous maintiendrai" cried he, in the words of the device of his house, when he visited Herzogenrath, in 1851. And so a large school has again been organized in the noble buildings of the former abbey of Rolduc, under a grant made by the bishop of Roermond. It includes a theological seminary, (with six humanity, and two philosophy classes,) an educational Institute in two departments, (one German and the other Dutch,) with a four years' course of study in each, and a Teachers' seminary. The instruction, as far as the branches peculiar to the intermediate school is concerned, is as thorough as in the Belgium atheneums. In addition, philosophy, Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Italian language are taught; the last is merely optional (facultativ.) The corps of instructors numbers twenty-five, without including the teachers of drawing, music, and gymnastics. In 1851, there were 300 students in the humanity department, 126 in the Institute, (86 German and 40 Dutch,) and 30 in the Teachers' seminary. The humanity students, after finishing the course here, go very generally to Löwen, or Münster, to complete their studies. There are also many private boarding schools, especially in North Brabant and Geldern. There exist no public schools for higher female education.

C. MISCELLANEOUS REMARKS.

a. *Course of Study.*

The grammars most generally used are those of Dorn Seiffen (professor at Amsterdam,) Bake, Zumpt and Madvig; we meet less frequently with those of Vossius, Weytingh, and Brödder. Weytingh, Dörring, Bake, and Reitz are preferred in the study of composition. The smaller lexicons of Scheller and Kärcher, translated by Bosche, are very frequently used; occasionally also, Georges, Noël, Kärcher, edited by Terptra, Scheller unabridged, Petiscus, &c. The official reports of the jury complain that very often two or three grammars are found in use in the same institution, and that the scholars at the close of their studies usually show in their compotions more correctness than understanding of what constitutes Latin elegance. The classics most frequently translated by the higher classes are—Sallust and Cicero, (orationes selectæ, de amicitia, de senectute, de officiis;) Ovid's Metamorphoses; Virgil's Æneid; the Odes, and rarely, the satires

and epistles of Horace; and occasionally Livy and Tacitus. Until within a few years, the prose writers were studied with more attention than the poets; prosody and metrics were almost entirely neglected. The "Gradus ad Parnassum" was not found among the school-books. But now a marked advance has been made; and in the rhetorical classes it has by degrees become customary to compare Dutch translations in verse with the originals, (as the Metamorphoses, by Bilderdijk;—the Odes of Horace, by Van Winter; the Æneid, by Madam Van Steek,) and to point out to the students the rules of Dutch versification, while at the same time their knowledge of the prosody and rhythm of the Latin language was made more thorough. On the other hand more importance is placed here than in Belgium, upon Latin composition and speaking. In Greek, after two years have been spent in learning the paradigms and rules, two more are devoted principally to the translation of Homer and Xenophon, in which a knowledge is also gained of syntax; in the rhetorical class the course is completed by the translation of some one of the tragedies.

Frequently a portion of Isocrates, or of Lysias, is also taken up,—sometimes one of the biographical dialogues of Plato. The theory of the accents is not neglected; nor prosody, in the reading of the poets. More methodical and accurately progressive, than rich in variety, the instruction given by the professors of Holland is thorough, and produces its appropriate effect, as is shown by the style of the majority of the academical dissertations. Pains are taken to inspire the pupils in the Latin schools with an interest in the writings of the ancients, while teaching them the history, in a condensed form, of classical literature. The manual of Weytingh is preferred in the Latin schools of the whole country. As a highly valued work made use of toward the close of the course, we may add the "Rhetorica contracta" of Vossius; also the "Præcepta stili bene latini" of Scheller, and, by the same author, the "Inleiding tot het lezen, van de Schriften der Ouden," (Introduction to the reading of the classics.) Zealous attention is now given to instruction in the native language, which for a long time was regarded as of secondary importance. In respect to mathematics there yet remains much to be done. Ancient history and geography, mythology and antiquities, are of necessity, and fortunately, associated with the study of literature. National history too is receiving more general attention. Still it can be said with truth that many a scholar of the public schools is more familiarly acquainted with the actual world in those relations in which he will be called upon to labor, than his more advanced school-fellow in the Latin schools. If Holland, which seems to accept German ideas with increasing readiness, were only imbued with the spirit in which the organization of the gymnasia in most of the allied states has been effected, there would be nothing more to desire. It is remarkable how persistently this people, prone to regard only the actual and practical, has clung to the old idea that realistic instruction is to be avoided as far as possible, while the study of the humanities is alone to be considered as effectual

to the harmonious culture of the human faculties, and as a preparation for the duties of life and future studies. The eyes of the people are now opening; but it would seem that Holland still remains so proud of its ancient philological reputation that it is determined to protect from every profane touch and from every attempt at removal, whatever has been devised for the purpose of preserving the remains of that reputation and perpetuating the remembrance of it.

b. *Special Schools.*

There still remain to be mentioned several special schools, differing very much in character, which are more or less nearly on a level with the intermediate schools, or even rise above them, but which still can not be properly included among the academical institutions. In connection with the army there are organized schools of every grade; the Instructie-bataillon," with 736 pupils in 1857, for the children of soldiers and officers of all ranks, in which instruction in the Malay language is given to those who intend to enter the East India service; schools for the militia, with 3,587 scholars; and also for the inferior officers, with 70 pupils in the scientific department. Ranking above these, there are the Royal Military Academy, with 322 cadets in 1858–9, the Royal Marine Institute at Williammsoord, with 131 pupils, and the Seaman's school at Flushing, with 49 pupils. There are, besides these, several other marine schools. At the Royal Academy at Delft, engineers and officers for the colonial governments are educated; this is a school of a higher grade, excellently managed, as is every other national establishment, designed to supply an immediate want. Of schools of miltary medical science, and of hospital and veterinary practice, there is no want in Holland. Gröningen posseses a school of agriculture; Amsterdam like Antwerp, in Belgium, an Institute of trades and industry. The institution for the deaf and dumb at Gröningen, has attained a deserved reputation; in 1857–8, it numbered 148 pupils of which 110 were instructed gratuitously, 27 paid from ten to fifty florins, and six paid 100 florins or more. Two other institutions of the same kind are located at St. Michelsgestel, and at Rotterdam, with 80 and 40 pupils respectively, in the same year. These are controlled by commissioners, and sustained principally by voluntary contributions; they are permitted also to receive bequests and donations. The German method of instruction is generally used, as appears from the manual recently issued; "Spraak en Lesorfeningen ten Dienste van doofstumme Kindren," (Exercises in speaking and reading for the use of deaf and dumb children.) The Institution for the Blind, at Amsterdam, also deserves notice. It had in 1857–8 no less than 65 pupils—36 boys and 29 girls. With these, as with the deaf and dumb, practical instruction is associated with the teachings of the schoolroom. Connected with the institution, is an asylum for such of the poor as are not capable, after leaving the institution, of providing for their own wants. Finally, the government has made provision for the instruction of criminals in the prisons, guard houses, and local jails. Of 17,869 prisoners in 1857, instruction was given to 2,972. Of the remainder,

8,390 were considered as sufficiently well educated, and 6,507 were exempted on account of old age and sickness. Forty-two teachers were employed in the civil and military prisons.

c. *Atheneums.*

The Atheneum, properly so called, at Amsterdam, with 118 pupils, in 1857–8, and the one at Deventer, with 32 students, are in reality from the character of the instruction there given, universities upon a small scale. The institution at Deventer may be said to bear the same relation to the three state universities at Leyden, Grōningen and Utrecht, that the small Latin school does to the larger gymnasium. Francker and Harderwick, have also their atheneums. With the exception of the atheneum at Amsterdam, known as the "Atheneum Illustre," which is an indispensable institution to so large a city, these are but the relicts of a splendor that is past. They may be of benefit, inasmuch as they furnish a means of support to a number of talented men whose resources would otherwise be small; but this division, this isolation of forces, which if united would be more than doubled in efficiency, is always to be deprecated. For a proof of this we need but to examine the condition of the three great universities of Holland.

D. CONCLUDING REMARKS.

The second section of the Reform Bill, which was carried through in 1829, but never went into operation in consequence of the events that resulted in the dismemberment of the kingdom of the Netherlands as defined by the allied powers in 1815, reads as follows; "The design of the intermediate schools is three-fold—to prepare youth for a course of academical study, to supply the want of a careful education to those who do not desire an academical degree, and lastly to impart practical information to those who purpose devoting themselves to business, to industrial and mechanical trades, or to the other useful occupations of civil life." Belgium, which since 1830 has had to establish every thing anew, and being engaged more in industrial occupations than in commerce, considers applied science more necessary than does its neighbor, with the exception of navigation, has never lost sight of these considerations, and has finally carried them into actual operation by legislative enactments. The better minds in Holland have also appreciated the advantages of this course, and by degrees have successfully attempted improvements of a like character; but as yet they have not succeeded in introducing a uniform system. Holland possesses an excellent system of public instruction and universities, which still in general prove themselves worthy of their ancient renown, but their progress is restricted so long as the course of instruction in the immediate schools is not by law rendered complete, and made to harmonize with the progressive movements of the age. Moreover if the government proclaims the freedom, to a greater or less extent, of instruction, it must also provide institutions that shall afford every facility for the satisfaction of the wants of all classes, especially if it reserves to

itself the right to employ in its own service the talent and future abilities of the educated. And it is on this very account that the question respecting secondary instruction is at this time one of such importance in Holland. If it be desired to attain a result that shall be really advantageous, it will not do, resting upon the constitution, to leave the parishes to their own resources, for the sake of avoiding opposition; it is necessary that the Latin schools, small and irregularly scattered over the country, should disappear, and give place to preparatory schools, (Pro-gymnasia,) where these are needed, but especially to institutions corresponding to the intermediate schools of Belgium, or to the real and burgher schools of Germany. Should a number of such gymnasia be established, they must also be ably managed, and completely furnished, so as to realize the ideal of the men of 1829. Instruction in Latin and Greek will lose nothing by this, and the close connection that exists between the three grades of instruction will no longer be interrupted. If to day the number of scholars in the Latin schools be compared with the population of the cities which sustain these institutions, (saying nothing of other cities,) one will be astonished at the disproportion, and must come to the conclusion that the greater portion of the citizens are content with the education received at the public schools. This is to be regretted. For as primary instruction, in accordance with the principles already explained, should not be raised too high, so also the wealthy class ought not to fall below their proper grade of mental culture. A rigid limitation in the education of the several classes of society would be equivalent to a creation of caste, and would prove a dangerous experiment. A continual gradation throughout is therefore essential to a national system of education, and there is no other way of effecting this than to perfect the course of popular study by an addition of general information, and the classical course, by the needed complement of instruction upon practical subjects. This connecting element is provided by a judicious organization of the system of intermediate instruction.

LUXEMBURG AND LIMBERG.

THE GRAND-DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG, anciently a German earldom, elevated to the rank of a duchy in 1354, purchased by the Duke of Burgundy in 1444, and ceeded by Austria in 1797 to France, was assigned to the house of Orange in 1815, in indemnification for territory ceded to Prussia and Nassau. In the revolution of 1830 it was divided into two portions, the eastern part (1,012 square miles and 188,000 inhabitants in 1860) remaining with Holland.

The DUCHY OF LIMBERG, anciently an earldom, inherited by the Duke of Brabant in 1280, and subsequently annexed to Burgundy, and with that duchy came under the sway of Spain, and then of Austria, until by the peace of Westphalia it was ceded to the Republic of the United Provinces. It had an area of 852 square miles, with 198,000 inhabitants.

The same views which have governed the more advanced educationists of Holland in regard to secondary schools have prevailed in the Archduchy of Luxemburg, which although belonging to the house of Orange, still has its own legislature and government, owing to its position in the German confederacy. Public instruction is there admirably organized, and in fact every class of society has its own. There are no universities, but the course of instruction at the Atheneum of Luxemburg, (with some 370 students,) is sufficiently extended to fit young men for the candidates' degree in literature and the sciences; the degrees are conferred by a local jury, who are governed by the Belgian regulations. This Atheneum, which has twenty professors and four tutors, is as perfectly organized as the better gymnasia of Prussia. Diekirch has a preparatory school, (Pro-gymnasium) with eight professors, four tutors, and four classes; Echternach possesses a Latin and a real school, and also an agricultural school. A teachers' seminary is established for the training of those who are to become public school teachers. A superintending committee of public instruction, assisted by a subordinate standing committee, preside over and manage the whole. The superintendence is conducted generally as in Belgium; and in both countries alike, have the traditions of Holland left a deep impression upon popular instruction. A common language and daily intercourse with the Germans have also, for some years past, exerted a marked influence upon the Luxemburg character.

LAW OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

THE LAW AND GENERAL REGULATIONS OF 1806.

I. THE LAW.

THEIR *High Mightinesses, representatives of the Batavian Republic, to all to whom these presents shall come greeting, &c.*

Having received and approved of the proposal made by the Grand Pensionary, it has been resolved to decree, as by these presents we do decree as follows:

LAW OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION IN THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC.

ARTICLE 1. The special inspection of primary instruction shall be confided, throughout the whole extent of the Batavian Republic, to functionaries who shall be called school inspectors, and who shall carry that inspection into effect, either concurrently or conjointly, according as the situation shall require, with other persons or commissions, according to the nature of the schools; the whole nevertheless under the chief superintendence of the Grand Pensionary, or, in his name, of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, and under the superintendence of the provincial authorities.

ART. 2. The provincial authorities shall take care that, throughout the whole extent of their province, young persons shall have every means of receiving a suitable education; without however, by an unlimited permission, allowing the number of teachers and of schools to be too great, especially in the rural districts.

ART. 3. They, as well as the parochial (*commune*) authorities, shall endeavor to ameliorate, and give security to, the condition of the teachers; according to such means as are at their disposal, or according to such as shall be supplied by the government, in case of need. They shall further take pains to encourage the adoption of the best system of education in the primary schools, to establish schools of industry in connection with the public schools, and maintain such as are already in existence in workhouses.

ART. 4. The school inspectors living in the same province, shall constitute the Board of Primary Instruction for that province.

ART. 5. Besides the power vested in the provincial authorities to appoint out of their own body a committee to watch over the primary schools, they may appoint from among themselves a member, who shall have particular powers to that effect, who shall stand in a neutral capacity between the committee of education and the school inspector, and to whom the latter must in the first instance apply in all matters relating to the school. In the department of Holland, there shall be two or three named, viz., one for each committee therein appointed.

ART. 6. The Grand Pensionary shall fix the sum total to be granted to each board. There shall be a provision in the budget for that special purpose, and it shall cover all the expenses and disbursements by the school inspectors, when allowed by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 7. The number of members of which each board shall consist, the boundaries of the districts, and the sum which shall be allotted to each, out of

the general fund, shall be regulated by the Grand Pensionary, and may be revised and modified according to circumstances.

ART. 8. The first named members of each board, and the members who may eventually be added to it, shall be nominated by the Grand Pensionary.

ART. 9. The Secretary of State for the Home Department shall submit to the Grand Pensionary all the necessary propositions concerning the different objects mentioned in the three preceding articles.

ART. 10. When a vacancy in the situation of a school inspector is to be filled up, the respective boards shall deliver to the provincial authorities a list, containing the names of two persons, who shall transmit the same to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, adding thereto such observations as may appear to them advisable; and, if they shall see fit, increasing the number of candidates by one or two persons. The Secretary of State shall submit that list to the Grand Pensionary, who shall appoint the school inspector.

ART. 11. The boards of primary instruction, the school inspectors, and all other local boards for schools which may be instituted in conformity with ulterior measures, shall take care that the law and regulations relative to primary instruction, both general, and special, be executed, and be not evaded, nor rendered inoperative, under any pretext whatsoever, in the provinces, districts, towns, or parishes, which form part of their jurisdiction. If such a case should arise, a complaint must be laid before the parochial, provincial, or national authorities, according to the exigency of the case.

ART. 12. No primary school shall be established, or shall exist, under whatsoever denomination, without express leave of the respective provincial or parochial authorities; who shall previously take the opinion and advice of the school inspector of the district, or of the local school board.

ART. 13. No one shall be allowed to teach in a primary school in the Batavian Republic, without complying with the four following conditions:—

First. He must produce one or more satisfactory certificates of good character, both as to his morals and his conduct as a citizen.

Secondly. He must have a certificate of general admission to exercise the calling of a teacher.

Thirdly. Besides such certificate of general admission, he must produce a *call*, *nomination*, or *special appointment*, to some particular school, legally obtained.

Fourthly. After having obtained such call, nomination, or special appointment, he must appear, with such proofs as may be desired, (either individual witnesses, or written testimony,) before the school inspector of his district, and before the local school board.

Tutors living in the houses of private individuals, and exclusively engaged in the education of the children of the family, are exempted.

ART. 14. All those who, after the passing of the present law, shall open a primary school, or give primary instruction, under whatever denomination, or in whatever manner it may be, in contravention of the two preceding articles, shall, for the first offense, incur a penalty of fifty florins, and for a second offense, of a hundred florins; whereof one-third shall be given to the public officer who brings the complaint, and the two remaining thirds shall be applied for the benefit of the respective local schools.

If the offenders shall be unable to pay the penalties, the judge shall have

power to inflict such other punishment as he shall deem advisable, due regard being had to the persons and the circumstances of the parties: for a third offense they shall be banished from the parish for six consecutive years.

ART. 15. The stipulations contained in Article 13, shall not apply to existing teachers legally exercising their functions, so long as they do not change their school, or their domicile; with the reserve, nevertheless, of subjecting them to the said enactments, in cases of notorious bad conduct or extreme ignorance.

ART. 16. General admission, for any department of primary instruction, can only be obtained by a previous and suitable examination before the competent authorities.

ART. 17. The calls, nominations, and special appointments shall be given by such boards as shall be hereafter determined on by the local regulation mentioned in Article 20; and in such a manner, moreover, that no call, nomination, or appointment shall take place, unless the school inspector of the district, or the local school board be duly informed thereof, and unless the certificate of general admission shall have been previously laid before the inspector.

ART. 18. All those who, having obtained a certificate of general admission, shall be guilty of neglect in the discharge of their duties; or of any infraction of, or resistance to, the law; or of notorious bad conduct; shall be punished, for the first offense, by the suspension for six weeks of the privileges of their certificate of general admission; and in case of a repetition of the offense, by that certificate being rendered null and void; and they shall be deprived of any right or advantage derivable from their call, nomination, or special appointment: and should they, notwithstanding, continue to teach, they shall be subjected to the punishments and penalties stated in Article 14.

ART. 19. The above mentioned temporary suspension or annulment of the privileges of the certificate, shall be ordered by the parochial, provincial, or national authorities competent to judge therein, upon a motion to that effect in the provincial board of education, or in the local school board; who shall confer, if necessary, with such persons as may be in most direct communication with the teachers in question.

ART. 20. All further and particular conditions which shall be deemed necessary for the advantage of primary instruction in each province, shall be contained in a local code of regulations, which shall be drawn up by each provincial board, in conformity with Article 5, and shall be submitted to the provincial authorities; who, after having obtained the sanction of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, shall give formal effect to it.

ART. 21. The Grand Pensionary shall decide upon such farther regulations or instructions as may be necessary for the uniform and effective introduction of this law, as well as all other regulations which shall have a tendency to make primary instruction in general more perfect.

All proclamations, statutes, ordinances, or regulations, now in existence in this republic, on the subject of primary schools, under whatever denomination they may be, and especially the decree of the 29th of July, 1803, as well as all the regulations and ordinances for schools founded upon them, shall, without any exception, be rescinded and annulled, from the moment that the present law shall be declared to be in operation, by its being promulgated by the Grand Pensionary.

By virtue of Article 21, of the above law, the several regulations and instructions indicated below by the letters A. B. C., are now decreed in like manner as the present law is decreed.

REGULATION A.

Concerning primary instruction, and the establishments connected with it, in the Batavian Republic.

ARTICLE 1. By a primary school, is to be understood, every establishment, of whatsoever denomination, whether schools, colleges, institutions or otherwise, in which the young of different ages and of both sexes shall be educated, whether collectively, or separately, in the first principles of knowledge; such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and the Dutch language; or in more advanced branches of knowledge, such as the French, and other modern languages; or the ancient tongues; geography, history, and other subjects of that description; finally, any establishment having for its object to prepare young persons for a higher education; the ordinary Latin schools and gymnasia, excepted.

ART. 2. Primary schools are hereby divided into two classes:—1. Those which are directly supported, either wholly, or in part, by an annual allowance from any particular fund, whether of the State, province, or parish; from ecclesiastical funds or those belonging to any foundation; or which, in any way, receive permanent assistance or support from any public fund. 2. Those receiving no assistance from any public fund, which are supported by private means or by donations. The first are to be deemed public schools, the second private schools; and the teachers are consequently to be classed as public teachers and private teachers.

ART. 3. The private schools mentioned in the preceding article are of two kinds:—1. Those which belong exclusively, either to a deaconry, to a hospital *Godshuis*, of any religious community, or to the society "FOR THE PUBLIC GOOD;" or to any foundation whatever, supported entirely at its own expense; or to such as are wholly maintained at the expense and at the risk of one, or of several individuals, who have formed an association for the entire and regular support of these schools: 2. Those which have no other income than what they derive from the fees of the pupils, receiving no permanent grant or annual allowance.

ART. 4. Primary instruction, in the Batavian Republic, shall be given in the public and private schools mentioned in Articles 2 and 3, of the present regulations;

In part, by teachers of both sexes, including such other individuals as may act as assistants to, or substitutes for, the master or mistress, or who under the name of under-master, or under-mistress, or the like, are intrusted with some branch of tuition in these schools;

In part, by such teachers of both sexes as under the title of teacher of languages, revisor, (*répétiteur*,) or any other, give lessons either in their own houses or abroad; and who are engaged in teaching some separate branch in the lower departments of tuition, to one or more pupils, in conformity with Article 1, of this regulation.

All such individuals are comprehended in the general law, and shall be designated by the names schoolmaster, schoolmistress, and teacher of languages, the latter term applying to those who give instruction in private houses.

Governors or tutors, and governesses, are alone excepted.

ART. 5. Every school inspector shall have his own particular district, the inspection whereof shall be confided to him individually, and in which he must, if possible, reside. The particular functions of the inspectors are regulated by *special instructions* for the boards of education. (*Regulation C.*)

ART. 6. The boards of education shall be provided by the provincial authorities, with every thing necessary for holding their meetings, such as a suitable room, fire, light, paper, &c.

ART. 7. If the Secretary of State for the Home Department shall deem it necessary, he shall summon an annual general meeting of deputies from all the provincial boards, to be held at The Hague; he shall preside at that meeting, and they shall deliberate upon the general interests of the primary schools.

ART. 8. Each provincial board shall send one of its members as a deputy to attend that meeting, and his expenses shall be defrayed according to a scale hereafter to be determined upon.

ART. 9. In small towns, villages, hamlets, or other places, where; in addition to a public school, there are not two or more private schools of the second class, exclusive of small schools kept by women, the school inspector of the district is authorized, in concert with the local authorities, to intrust one or more known and respectable persons with a local inspection, subordinate to his own, over the school or schools, and also over all the teachers of both sexes, in the place, whether village, hamlet, or otherwise, and for each separately.

ART. 10. In all the more considerable towns and places where, independently of one or two public schools, there are two or more private schools of the second class, exclusive of the above-mentioned schools kept by women, the parochial authorities, in concert with the school inspector of the district, shall establish a local superintendence of the primary schools, which shall consist of one or more persons, according to local circumstances, but so as each member shall have a particular division, and all the schools in that division shall be confided to him individually. These persons shall collectively constitute, with the school inspector of the district, the local school board, and their functions shall be determined by the local regulations regarding schools, which shall be issued in conformity with the general regulations, and with the conditions previously contained in the *regulations respecting examinations*, or in the *instructions for the boards.*

ART. 11. In the towns or more considerable places described above, the inspection of the public schools, in so far as it may at present be in the hands of a committee of directors, inspectors, or other persons of the like nature, and which is not at present, and can not be brought directly under the local committee of superintendence, shall be intrusted to the local board, or to two or more of the members thereof conjointly with an equal number of the members of the above mentioned committee. That united body shall constitute the local board for the public schools; and shall have power, under the direction and with the approbation of the parochial authorities, to settle its by-laws and mode of operation, according to circumstances, but in such a way, nevertheless, that the supervision of the instruction in these schools, and every thing connected with them, be wholly under their control.

ART. 12. The formation of these general local school boards, and the organization of the special local boards for the public schools, must take place before

the expiration of two months from the promulgation of this regulation. The parochial authorities must make a report to the provincial authorities, as well as to the provincial board of education.

The school inspector of the district shall discharge the duties of that local school inspection, until the boards shall have been established.

ART. 13. The superintendence of the private schools of the first class, shall belong to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board, unless a system of inspection for that purpose be otherwise provided. It will nevertheless be the duty of the inspector of the district, or of the local board, to be informed as to the state and organization of those schools, in order that a report thereon be made annually to the proper authorities. The inspector, or the local board above-mentioned, shall be bound to furnish to the actual inspecting authorities over these private schools, all such information and observations as may contribute to the advantage of these schools. The before-mentioned inspecting authorities shall be responsible for carrying into effect all the regulations, both general and special, which have now been, or shall hereafter be issued, respecting primary instruction.

ART. 14. All masters engaged in primary instruction, and comprehended in the above Article 4, shall make themselves known, either personally or by writing, in the course of the month of July in the present year, to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board. Such as shall then exhibit a preëxisting deed of call or nomination, shall, in title thereof, receive a certificate of general admission; and all such as may not be in possession of a deed of that description, but who in the opinion of the inspector, or of the board shall be considered deserving of the above-mentioned certificate, and shall have the approbation of the competent authorities, shall in like manner receive one. All those who shall have in this way obtained the certificate of general admission, shall be comprehended among the teachers, actually exercising a legal function, referred to in Art. 13, of the law.

ART. 15. In cases of extreme ignorance, after an admonition and previous notice by the inspector or local school board, six months at least shall be allowed; and at the expiration of that time, such masters shall be bound to exhibit to the provincial board of education, or to the local board, proofs of a commencement of improvement, in default of which they shall be either suspended or be deprived of their office, in conformity with Art. 18 and 19, of the law.

ART. 16. The enactments of Art. 13, of the law shall however not affect those persons who, having obtained from the competent authority a right to teach publicly, and to prepare young people in the higher branches of education, may be disposed to unite thereto some parts of primary instruction, whether the young persons be boarded with them or not; provided that in the case of boarders, whatever may be the number of the pupils, and in the other case, if the number shall exceed four, they give notice in writing to the provincial board, or to the local school board; it being also understood, that in teaching their pupils, they must not employ other persons than those who possess the qualifications required by Art. 13, of the law.

ART. 17. No one shall be allowed to become a candidate for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

ART. 18. In the event of a vacancy occurring in the situation of a teacher, those who have a right to become candidates shall give notice thereof, in writing, to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board, adding the amount of the emoluments attached to the situation, in order that due notice may be given thereof.

ART. 19. In every nomination or special appointment, those who give it must deliver to the person nominated, whether public or private schoolmaster or schoolmistress, or teacher of languages, a written deed, setting forth exactly the several duties comprised therein; and these last, in all that relates to tuition, must in no case go beyond those for which the person nominated shall have been authorized by his deed of general admission. The said deed shall not confer any qualification beyond that which is granted by the nomination. These deeds, according to No. 4, Art. 13, of the law, must be exhibited to the school inspector of the district, or to the local board, before the person nominated can enter upon any duties; in order that due public notice may be given thereof.

ART. 20. Besides a call, nomination, or special appointment as teacher of languages, there must be one as schoolmaster; farther, each deed shall be valid only for the school or place for which it has been granted.

All parochial authorities shall have a right to confer a special appointment on schoolmasters, or on teachers of languages, to entitle them to give lessons in private houses within their jurisdiction; provided such schoolmasters or teachers of languages have been admitted in their province or district, with due observance of what is enacted by Art. 17, of the law; and at the conclusion of the preceding article in this regulation.

ART. 21. *A general regulation for the internal order of schools*, to be drawn up and issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, shall be introduced into, and observed, in every school. There shall also be a special code of regulations for each school, drawn up in conformity with the general regulations. That special code shall be modified according to the wants and particular circumstances of each school, and shall be drawn up by the respective local inspecting authorities. It shall be sanctioned, in case of need, and according to circumstances, either by the local authorities, or by the provincial authorities. All these regulations shall be sent to the provincial board of primary instruction, by whom they shall be submitted to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 22. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

ART. 23. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of the religious community to which they belong, but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

ART. 24. At the expiration of a given time, public schoolmasters and schoolmistresses shall not be allowed to make use of any other elementary books than those which shall be contained in the list to be drawn up and issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

From that general list, every provincial board shall be at liberty to make out a special list of books for the use of the schools in their province, to the exclusion of all other books, with the understanding, however, that private teachers

of the first class shall have a right to use such other books as their schools may require, with the approbation of the inspecting authorities appointed for their schools, and upon giving notice thereof to the school inspector or to the local board, where such exists. The private teachers of the second class shall have the liberty of proposing to the school inspector of the district, or to the local board, if there be one, such books as they may deem proper for any particular branch that is taught in their schools.

A report shall be made to the first meeting of the provincial board, of all that has taken place on this head, both as regards the private schools of the first and of the second class; which report shall be made by the school inspector of the district, and shall be submitted by the said board to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 25. All persons who, by negligence, or by evil intent, shall fail to comply with the conditions of the preceding Articles, shall be subject to the punishments provided in the 18th Article of the law.

ART. 26. Notwithstanding the provisions relative to the suspension or annulment of the deeds of general admission, all persons and committees who have power over the private schools of the first class, shall retain the right to deprive the teachers of those schools of their call or nomination, either temporarily or absolutely, according as they shall deem it necessary for the interest of the school. Such persons or committees shall inform the inspector of the district, or the local board, of the fact, and of their reasons, in order that due public notice may be given thereof.

ART. 27. As concerns masters of public schools, masters of private schools of the second class, schoolmistresses and teachers of languages, the suspension or annulment of their deed of call, nomination, or special appointment, shall carry along with it the annulment or suspension of their deed of general admission; and due public notice thereof shall also be given.

ART. 28. In no private schools of the first class shall it be allowed that any other children be admitted to them, or be instructed therein, than those whose parents belong to the deaconry, hospital, society, or foundation to which these schools are attached, or are comprehended in the number of their inspectors or subscribers.

ART. 29. In the schools established for the poor, the children of the poor only can be admitted and taught.

In places where no such schools are established, the competent authorities shall take care that these children be received and educated in the ordinary school, either at the expense of the deaconry to which they belong, or out of some other fund.

ART. 30. The provincial and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps:

1st. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes,) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.

2d. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year.

The school inspector of the district shall make a report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department of all the measures that have been taken, or are

to be taken, for this end, and also of the effects that have followed therefrom, in order that such use may be made of them as the general welfare of the schools shall appear to require.

ART. 31. The Secretary of State for the Home Department shall employ all suitable means for training proper persons as teachers in primary schools, for exciting emulation among distinguished teachers, and for securing their maintenance and ameliorating their condition. He shall also adopt such measures as shall tend to spread a well regulated and truly useful education among the Batavian youth. He, as well as the provincial authorities, shall employ all their disposable means, to promote in the most effective manner, the perfecting of primary instruction; as well as to carry into execution, and maintain in full vigor, the law and all the regulations that belong to the subject.

ART. 32. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, to restrict, and to extend the present regulation in such manner, and at such time, as he shall judge useful and necessary.

REGULATION B.

Concerning the examinations to be undergone by those who desire to become teachers in the primary schools of the Batavian Republic.

ARTICLE 1. The teachers shall be divided into four classes, or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

The fourth or lowest class shall comprehend all such schoolmasters as are tolerably skilled in reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic, including the rule of three, and who show some aptitude in teaching.

The third class shall be composed of those who read and write well, and are skillful in arithmetic, including fractions; and who can use these last in practical questions with facility. They must, besides, have some acquaintance with the principles of the Dutch language, and have acquired some correct ideas as to a good system of teaching.

The second class shall be assigned to all such schoolmasters as can read and recite well; who can write a good and neat hand; who are familiar with theoretical and practical arithmetic; who have advanced pretty far in a knowledge of the principles of the Dutch language; who have some acquaintance with geography and history; and who are capable of imparting a somewhat advanced degree of instruction.

The first or highest class shall consist of those who, besides being very skillful in all the different parts of primary instruction, shall possess, in an eminent degree, an acquaintance with the principles and practice of a judicious and enlightened method of teaching; to whom geography and history are familiar; who have made some progress in mathematics and mechanical philosophy; and who are distinguished by the general cultivation of their minds.

Schoolmistresses, although connected with establishments of different descriptions, shall collectively constitute one class only; and the same rule shall apply to teachers of languages.

ART. 2. Those who only desire to obtain a deed of general admission to qualify themselves as teachers of the fourth or lowest class, shall be required to undergo an examination before the school inspector of the district only, who shall make a report thereof to the board of education, in order that the latter

may declare the admission, and issue the certificate thereof, if it shall have taken place.

ART. 3. All those who are desirous of obtaining a general admission as a master of the third, second, or first class, must be examined by a provincial board of education.

ART. 4. Besides the examinations which masters must pass, in order to obtain a call, nomination, or special appointment, as hereafter provided, the local school boards shall have the right to examine all persons desirous of obtaining a general admission as a teacher of languages, or as a schoolmistress. Where there is no local school board, these examinations shall take place before the school inspector of the district, or by the provincial board, particularly in the case of the candidate proposing to teach foreign languages, or the higher branches of knowledge.

ART. 5. The provincial boards of education, the school inspectors, or the local boards shall not admit to examination for a general admission, any individuals who shall not have been domiciled, for a year preceding, in their province, district, town, or other place within their jurisdiction, except in the case of foreigners who may wish to settle there.

ART. 6. Every person desirous of passing an examination for the office of schoolmaster, schoolmistress, or teacher of languages, must appear in due time before the member of the provincial board, or before the member of the local board in whose district or section he or she resides.

If he be a foreigner, he must equally apply to the said member of the district or section in which he wishes to settle; and both the one and the other must produce, at the same time, one or more satisfactory certificates of good moral conduct and of good conduct as citizens.

The above named member shall then notify the time and place where the examination shall be held.

ART. 7. In these examinations, the object shall be, to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

ART. 8. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavor to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinions on morals and religion, the sphere of his attainments, both with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

ART. 9. The subjects of examination shall be as follows:—

1. Reading from different printed and written characters; and whether with a good pronunciation, and a proper and natural accent, and with a knowledge of punctuation.

2. Some words and phrases designedly wrong shall be shown to the candidate, to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.

3. To ascertain the extent of his acquaintance with the grammatical structure of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated to him, which he shall analyze, and point out the parts of speech; and he must give proofs of a familiar acquaintance with the declensions and conjugations.

4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle, and small hand, and shall make his own pens.

5. Some questions in arithmetic shall be proposed to him, confining this especially to such as are of common occurrence, and which shall be sufficient to show the dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions. Questions shall be put to him on the theoretical parts, and especially on decimal arithmetic.

6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of singing.

7. Different questions shall be proposed relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as the candidate proposes to teach.

8. A passage in French, or in any other language in which the candidate wishes to be examined, shall be given to him to read and to translate. A passage in Dutch shall be dictated to him, to be translated by him, either in writing or *vivâ voce*, into the language which forms the subject of the examination. He shall be required to give, *de improviso*, in the same language, a composition in the form of a letter or narrative, &c.; all for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of acquaintance he possesses with the language in question, in orthography, grammar, and punctuation.

ART. 10. The examination upon the acquirements of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to inquire into his capacity for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children to know the letters, figures, and the first principles; then reading, writing, and arithmetic.

They shall then require him to relate some story or portion of history, in order to discover the degree of talent he possesses to present things to children with clearness and precision; care shall be taken, if there be a convenient opportunity, and if it be thought advisable, to have some children present, of different ages and of different degrees of attainment, in order to ascertain more particularly his skill in practical teaching.

ART. 11. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments; as also in general on the best methods to be adopted, not only to develop and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but, most especially, to bring them up in the exercise of the Christian virtues.

ART. 12. When the examination is concluded, the examiners shall deliver to the candidate, who desires to obtain a general admission as master, and has given proof of sufficient ability, a deed of that admission, according to the extent of his ability; and in this shall be stated, as distinctly as possible, the extent and the nature of the talent and of the acquirements of the candidate, as proved by his examination; and it shall declare the rank he has obtained, if it be in the first, second, third, or fourth class, and consequently such a general admission as shall give him a right to apply for the situation of a master, according to the rank which has been assigned to him. Finally, the said deed shall declare the branches of education, and the languages for which he shall have obtained the general admission.

ART. 13. The schoolmistresses or teachers of languages who shall have passed an examination, and have given sufficient proofs of their ability, shall also receive a deed which shall contain, besides a declaration of the extent and amount of their acquirements and talents, as proved by the examination, a general admission, either for the office of schoolmistress or teacher of languages

That deed shall moreover expressly declare the branches of study and the languages which the person examined shall be entitled to teach.

ART. 14. All the deeds mentioned in the two preceding articles shall be alike throughout the whole extent of the republic, both in the matter and the form. If they are issued by a provincial board of education, they shall be signed by the president and secretary, and the seal of the board shall be affixed to them. The deeds issued by an inspector, or by a local board, shall be signed by the inspector only, or by the secretary of the local board.

ART. 15. The certificates for the first and second class, issued by a provincial board, shall entitle those who obtain them to be masters in all primary schools, public as well as private, of the two classes, in all places throughout the republic without exception; whereas the deeds issued by a local board shall confer no privilege beyond that locality.

ART. 16. The certificates for the third class, as well as those for the fourth, or lowest class, shall confer no privilege of becoming teachers, except in schools established in places whose wants are proportioned to the rank and capacity of such masters, and which are situated within the jurisdiction of the provincial board.

ART. 17. In order that the provisions contained in the two preceding articles may be more easily carried into effect, the schools in small towns and less considerable places, more fully described in Art. 9, of Regulation A., shall be classed by the different inspectors, and by the provincial boards, into *higher*, *middle*, and *lower* schools, upon a principle hereafter provided. This classification, which shall be submitted to the provincial authorities for approval, shall be solely for the purpose of preventing the principal schools falling into the hands of incompetent masters; while, at the same time, it leaves the power of placing a very able master over the smallest school.

ART. 18. In the towns, or places of greater importance, described more fully in Art. 10, of Regulation A., no master of the fourth, or lowest class, shall be eligible to either a public or a private school. The local boards are even recommended to take care, as much as possible, that the tuition in the schools of their towns shall not be intrusted to any other than *masters of the first or second class.*

ART. 19. The deed to be delivered to the masters of the first class, shall bear the title, *par excellence*, of COMPLETE CERTIFICATE. It shall not be granted to any one who has not attained the age of twenty-five;* the greatest strictness must be observed in granting this certificate, which shall be distinguished from all the others, in form as well as in the terms in which it is drawn up.

ART. 20. The value of the *Complete Certificate*, delivered in terms of the preceding conditions, shall be settled for each province by the local regulation; with this proviso, that the possessors of such certificates shall be entitled to examination gratis, when they are desirous of undergoing one, in order to avail themselves of the privileges belonging to them.†

ART. 21. The deeds of general admission, qualifying for the situation of

* The age at which each of the three other ranks may be obtained were subsequently fixed as follows: the second class at twenty-two years of age, the third class at eighteen, and the fourth class at sixteen.

† This temporary article has been long since abolished.

schoolmistress or teacher of languages, shall only be valid within the limits of the jurisdiction of those by whom they have been issued.

ART. 22. A deed of general admission as teacher, of whatever rank, shall confer the privilege upon the holder, of becoming a candidate for a call, nomination, or special appointment, either as a master, or a teacher of languages. But a general admission as teacher of languages, on the contrary, shall give no right to the holder to become a candidate for a call, nomination, or special appointment as a master, unless a general admission as master shall also have been obtained.

ART. 23. Masters of the three lower classes shall be at liberty to apply at any time to the board of education of the province in which they reside to be admitted into a higher class, by undergoing a fresh examination; and the most distinguished individuals in the two lower classes, shall be invited and encouraged by the school inspector of the district, or by the local school board, to come forward at the expiration of every two years to be again examined before the provincial board, until they shall have obtained a certificate as master of the second class; and on each occasion a new certificate shall be delivered to them, according to the higher rank to which they shall have been raised.

ART. 24. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published through the medium of the periodical work, intitled *"Bydragen tot den Staat,"* &c.* The mistresses of schools for very young children shall not be included in this list.

ART. 25. Those who shall have obtained a general admission as master, of whatsoever rank or kind it may be, must undergo a second examination or comparative trial, when they are candidates for a call, nomination, or special appointment, and that comparative trial shall take place, either before the local school board, or before some other board or persons duly authorized for the purpose by those who have authority to appoint them.

ART. 26. The provincial and municipal authorities shall fix the payments to be made for the examinations; but in such a manner,—

1. That there shall be an increase in the rate payable for each new class, and that a due proportion shall be observed in the fees to be exacted from the different ranks of schoolmasters, schoolmistresses, and teachers of languages.

2. That if a person shall have paid the fee for the lower class of schoolmaster, when he obtains a higher rank, he shall not pay more in addition, than the difference between the fee for the lower class, and that for the higher class into which he has been admitted.

3. That if a teacher of languages shall obtain any rank as a master, he shall be considered as having thus far paid nothing toward the fee.

4. That those who, according to the preceding laws for the regulation of schools, shall have passed an examination for which they have paid the fee, and shall undergo a new examination in order to obtain rank, of whatever degree, shall not pay more than the difference between the amount payable for the higher rank and their former payment. All those who shall have obtained a complete certificate, are exempted from this provision.

5. That the fees paid for examinations which have taken place before the

* This useful compilation continues to the present day.

trict, the inspector must receive notice of all their meetings, and he must attend them as often as possible, and especially on those occasions when candidates are to be examined.

He shall have access to all the schools subject to the inspection of the local boards, but he shall not be entitled to preside at those meetings in virtue of his office, nor shall he, conjointly with the other members, take part in the inspection of any section or number of schools in the place, which are confided to the personal inspection of an individual of the board.

The other members of the local boards shall possess the same powers of inspection over the primary schools in the place, each in his particular section, in the same manner as the duties of inspection are intrusted individually to the school inspectors in those situations where no local boards exist; so that every thing contained in the first nine articles of the present regulation concerning school inspectors shall apply to the members of the local boards, subject only to the alterations that the different circumstances require.

ART. 13. The inspector shall endeavor, by all suitable means, and particularly by friendly communications with the local inspectors, and with the different members of the local school boards established in his district, to have the earliest and most correct information of all changes, and of all events of importance respecting the primary schools, which may occur in any part of his district; or of any thing relating to vacancies in the office of teacher, either by death, resignation, or other cause. He shall inform himself as to the nature of the schools; of the class to which they belong; of the emoluments; of the conditions attached to the situations; as also the names, qualifications, rank and talents of the persons who shall have received a call, nomination, or special appointment to fill the vacancies throughout his district.

ART. 14. The inspector shall send monthly to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, an accurate report of all vacancies in the office of teacher, and of all new appointments, (except what concerns the schools for children of tender age,) and of every detail mentioned in the preceding article, in order that such reports may be published, in so far as it shall be thought advisable, in the periodical work entitled "*Bydragen*," &c.

ART. 15. The inspectors shall take care, in the event of a vacancy in the office of inspector in any district, whether by resignation, death, or other cause, that all the papers and documents relating to it be delivered in good order to the person who shall succeed.

ART. 16. When any such vacancy shall occur, whether by death, resignation, or other cause, the inspection of the district shall be carried on until a successor is appointed, by one or more of the inspectors belonging to that provincial board, according to a temporary arrangement to be made by the said board on each vacancy, and approved of by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

The parties discharging the duties of a vacant inspectorship shall be entitled to all the emoluments belonging to the office.

ART. 17. The recommendations for filling up vacancies among the school inspectors of a district shall in future be made by the respective boards of education, at their first meeting after the vacancy shall have occurred, and shall be transmitted to the provincial authorities; and if any circumstances shall prevent this being done, these shall be communicated to the said authorities during the session of the board.

ence, he shall not visit them without having had due communication with the persons who are so charged with them.

ART. 6. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed; and, according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen and heard. Every school inspector shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

ART. 7. In his visits to the other schools, the inspector shall not communicate to the master the remarks and reflections he may have had occasion to note down, but shall with due discretion communicate them either to the local board or to the particular parties intrusted with their superintendence, according to the nature of the school.

ART. 8. In all matters relating to the welfare of the schools, in which the inspectors may stand in need of the assistance or coöperation of the civil power, they shall apply to the local authorities, either provincial or national, according to the nature of the business.

ART. 9. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year. They shall for that purpose make the necessary representations to the constituted authorities, or to the persons who have power to take the necessary measures for that end; conforming, moreover, in all the provisions contained in the present and the preceding Article, to what has been declared in Art. 5, of the law.

ART. 10. They shall take care that before any master enters upon his office, he be provided with the required license of appointment, and they shall require him to produce at the same time the documents which were necessary for obtaining the special nomination. As regards the annual renewal of the patent, the persons appointed by the law for that purpose shall look after it.*

ART. 11. Although every school inspector be authorized in the cases, and in the manner provided by Art. 9, of Regulation A., to depute the local inspection of one or more schools to one or more persons, he shall nevetheless be held fully responsible for those schools and for the education which is given in them. He shall be bound to fulfill in person the essential duties of his office as regards those schools. The appointment of the local inspectors is merely to aid and relieve him in the discharge of his duties.

ART. 12. Being a member of every local school board established in his dis-

* Long since become obsolete.

the expiration of two months from the promulgation of this regulation. The parochial authorities must make a report to the provincial authorities, as well as to the provincial board of education.

The school inspector of the district shall discharge the duties of that local school inspection, until the boards shall have been established.

ART. 13. The superintendence of the private schools of the first class, shall belong to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board, unless a system of inspection for that purpose be otherwise provided. It will nevertheless be the duty of the inspector of the district, or of the local board, to be informed as to the state and organization of those schools, in order that a report thereon be made annually to the proper authorities. The inspector, or the local board above-mentioned, shall be bound to furnish to the actual inspecting authorities over these private schools, all such information and observations as may contribute to the advantage of these schools. The before-mentioned inspecting authorities shall be responsible for carrying into effect all the regulations, both general and special, which have now been, or shall hereafter be issued, respecting primary instruction.

ART. 14. All masters engaged in primary instruction, and comprehended in the above Article 4, shall make themselves known, either personally or by writing, in the course of the month of July in the present year, to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board. Such as shall then exhibit a preëxisting deed of call or nomination, shall, in title thereof, receive a certificate of general admission; and all such as may not be in possession of a deed of that description, but who in the opinion of the inspector, or of the board shall be considered deserving of the above-mentioned certificate, and shall have the approbation of the competent authorities, shall in like manner receive one. All those who shall have in this way obtained the certificate of general admission, shall be comprehended among the teachers, actually exercising a legal function, referred to in Art. 13, of the law.

ART. 15. In cases of extreme ignorance, after an admonition and previous notice by the inspector or local school board, six months at least shall be allowed; and at the expiration of that time, such masters shall be bound to exhibit to the provincial board of education, or to the local board, proofs of a commencement of improvement, in default of which they shall be either suspended or be deprived of their office, in conformity with Art. 18 and 19, of the law.

ART. 16. The enactments of Art. 13, of the law shall however not affect those persons who, having obtained from the competent authority a right to teach publicly, and to prepare young people in the higher branches of education, may be disposed to unite thereto some parts of primary instruction, whether the young persons be boarded with them or not; provided that in the case of boarders, whatever may be the number of the pupils, and in the other case, if the number shall exceed four, they give notice in writing to the provincial board, or to the local school board; it being also understood, that in teaching their pupils, they must not employ other persons than those who possess the qualifications required by Art. 13, of the law.

ART. 17. No one shall be allowed to become a candidate for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

ART. 18. In the event of a vacancy occurring in the situation of a teacher, those who have a right to become candidates shall give notice thereof, in writing, to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board, adding the amount of the emoluments attached to the situation, in order that due notice may be given thereof.

ART. 19. In every nomination or special appointment, those who give it must deliver to the person nominated, whether public or private schoolmaster or schoolmistress, or teacher of languages, a written deed, setting forth exactly the several duties comprised therein; and these last, in all that relates to tuition, must in no case go beyond those for which the person nominated shall have been authorized by his deed of general admission. The said deed shall not confer any qualification beyond that which is granted by the nomination. These deeds, according to No. 4, Art. 13, of the law, must be exhibited to the school inspector of the district, or to the local board, before the person nominated can enter upon any duties; in order that due public notice may be given thereof.

ART. 20. Besides a call, nomination, or special appointment as teacher of languages, there must be one as schoolmaster; farther, each deed shall be valid only for the school or place for which it has been granted.

All parochial authorities shall have a right to confer a special appointment on schoolmasters, or on teachers of languages, to entitle them to give lessons in private houses within their jurisdiction; provided such schoolmasters or teachers of languages have been admitted in their province or district, with due observance of what is enacted by Art. 17, of the law; and at the conclusion of the preceding article in this regulation.

ART. 21. *A general regulation for the internal order of schools*, to be drawn up and issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, shall be introduced into, and observed, in every school. There shall also be a special code of regulations for each school, drawn up in conformity with the general regulations. That special code shall be modified according to the wants and particular circumstances of each school, and shall be drawn up by the respective local inspecting authorities. It shall be sanctioned, in case of need, and according to circumstances, either by the local authorities, or by the provincial authorities. All these regulations shall be sent to the provincial board of primary instruction, by whom they shall be submitted to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 22. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

ART. 23. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of the religious community to which they belong, but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

ART. 24. At the expiration of a given time, public schoolmasters and schoolmistresses shall not be allowed to make use of any other elementary books than those which shall be contained in the list to be drawn up and issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

From that general list, every provincial board shall be at liberty to make out a special list of books for the use of the schools in their province, to the exclusion of all other books, with the understanding, however, that private teachers

of the first class shall have a right to use such other books as their schools may require, with the approbation of the inspecting authorities appointed for their schools, and upon giving notice thereof to the school inspector or to the local board, where such exists. The private teachers of the second class shall have the liberty of proposing to the school inspector of the district, or to the local board, if there be one, such books as they may deem proper for any particular branch that is taught in their schools.

A report shall be made to the first meeting of the provincial board, of all that has taken place on this head, both as regards the private schools of the first and of the second class; which report shall be made by the school inspector of the district, and shall be submitted by the said board to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 25. All persons who, by negligence, or by evil intent, shall fail to comply with the conditions of the preceding Articles, shall be subject to the punishments provided in the 18th Article of the law.

ART. 26. Notwithstanding the provisions relative to the suspension or annulment of the deeds of general admission, all persons and committees who have power over the private schools of the first class, shall retain the right to deprive the teachers of those schools of their call or nomination, either temporarily or absolutely, according as they shall deem it necessary for the interest of the school. Such persons or committees shall inform the inspector of the district, or the local board, of the fact, and of their reasons, in order that due public notice may be given thereof.

ART. 27. As concerns masters of public schools, masters of private schools of the second class, schoolmistresses and teachers of languages, the suspension or annulment of their deed of call, nomination, or special appointment, shall carry along with it the annulment or suspension of their deed of general admission; and due public notice thereof shall also be given.

ART. 28. In no private schools of the first class shall it be allowed that any other children be admitted to them, or be instructed therein, than those whose parents belong to the deaconry, hospital, society, or foundation to which these schools are attached, or are comprehended in the number of their inspectors or subscribers.

ART. 29. In the schools established for the poor, the children of the poor only can be admitted and taught.

In places where no such schools are established, the competent authorities shall take care that these children be received and educated in the ordinary school, either at the expense of the deaconry to which they belong, or out of some other fund.

ART. 30. The provincial and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps:

1st. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes,) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.

2d. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year.

The school inspector of the district shall make a report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department of all the measures that have been taken, or are

to be taken, for this end, and also of the effects that have followed therefrom, in order that such use may be made of them as the general welfare of the schools shall appear to require.

ART. 31. The Secretary of State for the Home Department shall employ all suitable means for training proper persons as teachers in primary schools, for exciting emulation among distinguished teachers, and for securing their maintenance and ameliorating their condition. He shall also adopt such measures as shall tend to spread a well regulated and truly useful education among the Batavian youth. He, as well as the provincial authorities, shall employ all their disposable means, to promote in the most effective manner, the perfecting of primary instruction; as well as to carry into execution, and maintain in full vigor, the law and all the regulations that belong to the subject.

ART. 32. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, to restrict, and to extend the present regulation in such manner, and at such time, as he shall judge useful and necessary.

REGULATION B.

Concerning the examinations to be undergone by those who desire to become teachers in the primary schools of the Batavian Republic.

ARTICLE 1. The teachers shall be divided into four classes, or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

The fourth or lowest class shall comprehend all such schoolmasters as are tolerably skilled in reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic, including the rule of three, and who show some aptitude in teaching.

The third class shall be composed of those who read and write well, and are skillful in arithmetic, including fractions; and who can use these last in practical questions with facility. They must, besides, have some acquaintance with the principles of the Dutch language, and have acquired some correct ideas as to a good system of teaching.

The second class shall be assigned to all such schoolmasters as can read and recite well; who can write a good and neat hand; who are familiar with theoretical and practical arithmetic; who have advanced pretty far in a knowledge of the principles of the Dutch language; who have some acquaintance with geography and history; and who are capable of imparting a somewhat advanced degree of instruction.

The first or highest class shall consist of those who, besides being very skillful in all the different parts of primary instruction, shall possess, in an eminent degree, an acquaintance with the principles and practice of a judicious and enlightened method of teaching; to whom geography and history are familiar; who have made some progress in mathematics and mechanical philosophy; and who are distinguished by the general cultivation of their minds.

Schoolmistresses, although connected with establishments of different descriptions, shall collectively constitute one class only; and the same rule shall apply to teachers of languages.

ART. 2. Those who only desire to obtain a deed of general admission to qualify themselves as teachers of the fourth or lowest class, shall be required to undergo an examination before the school inspector of the district only, who shall make a report thereof to the board of education, in order that the latter

may declare the admission, and issue the certificate thereof, if it shall have taken place.

ART. 3. All those who are desirous of obtaining a general admission as a master of the third, second, or first class, must be examined by a provincial board of education.

ART. 4. Besides the examinations which masters must pass, in order to obtain a call, nomination, or special appointment, as hereafter provided, the local school boards shall have the right to examine all persons desirous of obtaining a general admission as a teacher of languages, or as a schoolmistress. Where there is no local school board, these examinations shall take place before the school inspector of the district, or by the provincial board, particularly in the case of the candidate proposing to teach foreign languages, or the higher branches of knowledge.

ART. 5. The provincial boards of education, the school inspectors, or the local boards shall not admit to examination for a general admission, any individuals who shall not have been domiciled, for a year preceding, in their province, district, town, or other place within their jurisdiction, except in the case of foreigners who may wish to settle there.

ART. 6. Every person desirous of passing an examination for the office of schoolmaster, schoolmistress, or teacher of languages, must appear in due time before the member of the provincial board, or before the member of the local board in whose district or section he or she resides.

If he be a foreigner, he must equally apply to the said member of the district or section in which he wishes to settle; and both the one and the other must produce, at the same time, one or more satisfactory certificates of good moral conduct and of good conduct as citizens.

The above named member shall then notify the time and place where the examination shall be held.

ART. 7. In these examinations, the object shall be, to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

ART. 8. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavor to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinions on morals and religion, the sphere of his attainments, both with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

ART. 9. The subjects of examination shall be as follows:—

1. Reading from different printed and written characters; and whether with a good pronunciation, and a proper and natural accent, and with a knowledge of punctuation.

2. Some words and phrases designedly wrong shall be shown to the candidate, to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.

3. To ascertain the extent of his acquaintance with the grammatical structure of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated to him, which he shall analyze, and point out the parts of speech; and he must give proofs of a familiar acquaintance with the declensions and conjugations.

4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle, and small hand, and shall make his own pens.

5. Some questions in arithmetic shall be proposed to him, confining this especially to such as are of common occurrence, and which shall be sufficient to show the dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions. Questions shall be put to him on the theoretical parts, and especially on decimal arithmetic.

6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of singing.

7. Different questions shall be proposed relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as the candidate proposes to teach.

8. A passage in French, or in any other language in which the candidate wishes to be examined, shall be given to him to read and to translate. A passage in Dutch shall be dictated to him, to be translated by him, either in writing or *viva voce*, into the language which forms the subject of the examination. He shall be required to give, *de improviso*, in the same language, a composition in the form of a letter or narrative, &c.; all for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of acquaintance he possesses with the language in question, in orthography, grammar, and punctuation.

ART. 10. The examination upon the acquirements of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to inquire into his capacity for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children to know the letters, figures, and the first principles; then reading, writing, and arithmetic.

They shall then require him to relate some story or portion of history, in order to discover the degree of talent he possesses to present things to children with clearness and precision; care shall be taken, if there be a convenient opportunity, and if it be thought advisable, to have some children present, of different ages and of different degrees of attainment, in order to ascertain more particularly his skill in practical teaching.

ART. 11. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments; as also in general on the best methods to be adopted, not only to develop and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but, most especially, to bring them up in the exercise of the Christian virtues.

ART. 12. When the examination is concluded, the examiners shall deliver to the candidate, who desires to obtain a general admission as master, and has given proof of sufficient ability, a deed of that admission, according to the extent of his ability; and in this shall be stated, as distinctly as possible, the extent and the nature of the talent and of the acquirements of the candidate, as proved by his examination; and it shall declare the rank he has obtained, if it be in the first, second, third, or fourth class, and consequently such a general admission as shall give him a right to apply for the situation of a master, according to the rank which has been assigned to him. Finally, the said deed shall declare the branches of education, and the languages for which he shall have obtained the general admission.

ART. 13. The schoolmistresses or teachers of languages who shall have passed an examination, and have given sufficient proofs of their ability, shall also receive a deed which shall contain, besides a declaration of the extent and amount of their acquirements and talents, as proved by the examination, a general admission, either for the office of schoolmistress or teacher of languages

That deed shall moreover expressly declare the branches of study and the languages which the person examined shall be entitled to teach.

ART. 14. All the deeds mentioned in the two preceding articles shall be alike throughout the whole extent of the republic, both in the matter and the form. If they are issued by a provincial board of education, they shall be signed by the president and secretary, and the seal of the board shall be affixed to them. The deeds issued by an inspector, or by a local board, shall be signed by the inspector only, or by the secretary of the local board.

ART. 15. The certificates for the first and second class, issued by a provincial board, shall entitle those who obtain them to be masters in all primary schools, public as well as private, of the two classes, in all places throughout the republic without exception; whereas the deeds issued by a local board shall confer no privilege beyond that locality.

ART. 16. The certificates for the third class, as well as those for the fourth, or lowest class, shall confer no privilege of becoming teachers, except in schools established in places whose wants are proportioned to the rank and capacity of such masters, and which are situated within the jurisdiction of the provincial board.

ART. 17. In order that the provisions contained in the two preceding articles may be more easily carried into effect, the schools in small towns and less considerable places, more fully described in Art. 9, of Regulation A., shall be classed by the different inspectors, and by the provincial boards, into *higher*, *middle*, and *lower* schools, upon a principle hereafter provided. This classification, which shall be submitted to the provincial authorities for approval, shall be solely for the purpose of preventing the principal schools falling into the hands of incompetent masters; while, at the same time, it leaves the power of placing a very able master over the smallest school.

ART. 18. In the towns, or places of greater importance, described more fully in Art. 10, of Regulation A., no master of the fourth, or lowest class, shall be eligible to either a public or a private school. The local boards are even recommended to take care, as much as possible, that the tuition in the schools of their towns shall not be intrusted to any other than *masters of the first or second class*.

ART. 19. The deed to be delivered to the masters of the first class, shall bear the title, *par excellence*, of COMPLETE CERTIFICATE. It shall not be granted to any one who has not attained the age of twenty-five;* the greatest strictness must be observed in granting this certificate, which shall be distinguished from all the others, in form as well as in the terms in which it is drawn up.

ART. 20. The value of the *Complete Certificate*, delivered in terms of the preceding conditions, shall be settled for each province by the local regulation; with this proviso, that the possessors of such certificates shall be entitled to examination gratis, when they are desirous of undergoing one, in order to avail themselves of the privileges belonging to them.†

ART. 21. The deeds of general admission, qualifying for the situation of

* The age at which each of the three other ranks may be obtained were subsequently fixed as follows: the second class at twenty-two years of age, the third class at eighteen, and the fourth class at sixteen.

† This temporary article has been long since abolished.

schoolmistress or teacher of languages, shall only be valid within the limits of the jurisdiction of those by whom they have been issued.

ART. 22. A deed of general admission as teacher, of whatever rank, shall confer the privilege upon the holder, of becoming a candidate for a call, nomination, or special appointment, either as a master, or a teacher of languages. But a general admission as teacher of languages, on the contrary, shall give no right to the holder to become a candidate for a call, nomination, or special appointment as a master, unless a general admission as master shall also have been obtained.

ART. 23. Masters of the three lower classes shall be at liberty to apply at any time to the board of education of the province in which they reside to be admitted into a higher class, by undergoing a fresh examination; and the most distinguished individuals in the two lower classes, shall be invited and encouraged by the school inspector of the district, or by the local school board, to come forward at the expiration of every two years to be again examined before the provincial board, until they shall have obtained a certificate as master of the second class; and on each occasion a new certificate shall be delivered to them, according to the higher rank to which they shall have been raised.

ART. 24. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published through the medium of the periodical work, intitled "*Bydragen tot den Staat*," &c.* The mistresses of schools for very young children shall not be included in this list.

ART. 25. Those who shall have obtained a general admission as master, of whatsoever rank or kind it may be, must undergo a second examination or comparative trial, when they are candidates for a call, nomination, or special appointment, and that comparative trial shall take place, either before the local school board, or before some other board or persons duly authorized for the purpose by those who have authority to appoint them.

ART. 26. The provincial and municipal authorities shall fix the payments to be made for the examinations; but in such a manner,—

1. That there shall be an increase in the rate payable for each new class, and that a due proportion shall be observed in the fees to be exacted from the different ranks of schoolmasters, schoolmistresses, and teachers of languages.

2. That if a person shall have paid the fee for the lower class of schoolmaster, when he obtains a higher rank, he shall not pay more in addition, than the difference between the fee for the lower class, and that for the higher class into which he has been admitted.

3. That if a teacher of languages shall obtain any rank as a master, he shall be considered as having thus far paid nothing toward the fee.

4. That those who, according to the preceding laws for the regulation of schools, shall have passed an examination for which they have paid the fee, and shall undergo a new examination in order to obtain rank, of whatever degree, shall not pay more than the difference between the amount payable for the higher rank and their former payment. All those who shall have obtained a complete certificate, are exempted from this provision.

5. That the fees paid for examinations which have taken place before the

* This useful compilation continues to the present day.

school inspector of the district shall be paid over to the fund for the respective boards of education.

ART. 27. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, restrict, or extend the present regulation, as it shall appear to him to be useful and necessary.

REGULATION C.

Instruction for the School Inspectors, and for the boards of education in the different provinces of the Batavian Republic.

ARTICLE 1. The school inspectors shall take the utmost care that the education of the young be conducted upon an uniform system, improved, and rendered more directly and more generally useful; that the masters be really capable of imparting instruction of that nature; that their zeal be encouraged, their merit rewarded, and their condition improved; that the measures taken, or to be taken, relative to primary education be duly notified and carried into execution; that all obstacles which may present themselves be removed with prudence, in order that the improvement of primary instruction in general, may be brought before the public in an advantageous light; all in conformity with the following provisions.

ART. 2. Each inspector shall make himself acquainted with the number and situations of the primary schools, and also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. It shall be his duty to see that, besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall be a sufficient number of schools for children of tender age, organized in the best possible manner, and also schools of industry. Finally, he shall take care, that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different parishes.

ART. 3. He shall make it his business to become personally acquainted with the different masters in his district, and with extent of their fitness, and shall keep a note thereof. He shall be at all times accessible to those who think they require advice and explanations from him, concerning their duties: in particular cases he may require them to appear before him in person, or to address him in writing, when he shall deem it necessary.

ART. 4. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose, he shall at fixed periods require a certain number of them to meet him, either at his own house or in other parts of his district, and as frequently as possible. On these occasions, he shall converse with them on the object and nature of the important duties confided to them, and upon the best method of fulfilling them faithfully and usefully for the children.*

ART. 5. The inspector shall be bound *to visit twice a year*, all the schools in his district, which are directly subject to his supervision. He is hereby exhorted to repeat those visits at different times, either when a particular case calls for it, or for the general good, and as often as he can do so without imposing too heavy a duty upon himself. He shall inspect the other schools in his district from time to time; but if these schools are under any particular superintend-

* In compliance with the spirit of this article, societies of schoolmasters have been formed, under the auspices of the inspectors, at different times, in the districts of each province, which keeps up a rivalry of improvement. They meet at stated times, generally every month.

ence, he shall not visit them without having had due communication with the persons who are so charged with them.

ART. 6. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed; and, according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen and heard. Every school inspector shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

ART. 7. In his visits to the other schools, the inspector shall not communicate to the master the remarks and reflections he may have had occasion to note down, but shall with due discretion communicate them either to the local board or to the particular parties intrusted with their superintendence, according to the nature of the school.

ART. 8. In all matters relating to the welfare of the schools, in which the inspectors may stand in need of the assistance or coöperation of the civil power, they shall apply to the local authorities, either provincial or national, according to the nature of the business.

ART. 9. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year. They shall for that purpose make the necessary representations to the constituted authorities, or to the persons who have power to take the necessary measures for that end; conforming, moreover, in all the provisions contained in the present and the preceding Article, to what has been declared in Art. 5, of the law.

ART. 10. They shall take care that before any master enters upon his office, he be provided with the required license of appointment, and they shall require him to produce at the same time the documents which were necessary for obtaining the special nomination. As regards the annual renewal of the patent, the persons appointed by the law for that purpose shall look after it.*

ART. 11. Although every school inspector be authorized in the cases, and in the manner provided by Art. 9, of Regulation A., to depute the local inspection of one or more schools to one or more persons, he shall nevetheless be held fully responsible for those schools and for the education which is given in them. He shall be bound to fulfill in person the essential duties of his office as regards those schools. The appointment of the local inspectors is merely to aid and relieve him in the discharge of his duties.

ART. 12. Being a member of every local school board established in his dis-

* Long since become obsolete.

trict, the inspector must receive notice of all their meetings, and he must attend them as often as possible, and especially on those occasions when candidates are to be examined.

He shall have access to all the schools subject to the inspection of the local boards, but he shall not be entitled to preside at those meetings in virtue of his office, nor shall he, conjointly with the other members, take part in the inspection of any section or number of schools in the place, which are confided to the personal inspection of an individual of the board.

The other members of the local boards shall possess the same powers of inspection over the primary schools in the place, each in his particular section, in the same manner as the duties of inspection are intrusted individually to the school inspectors in those situations where no local boards exist; so that every thing contained in the first nine articles of the present regulation concerning school inspectors shall apply to the members of the local boards, subject only to the alterations that the different circumstances require.

ART. 13. The inspector shall endeavor, by all suitable means, and particularly by friendly communications with the local inspectors, and with the different members of the local school boards established in his district, to have the earliest and most correct information of all changes, and of all events of importance respecting the primary schools, which may occur in any part of his district; or of any thing relating to vacancies in the office of teacher, either by death, resignation, or other cause. He shall inform himself as to the nature of the schools; of the class to which they belong; of the emoluments; of the conditions attached to the situations; as also the names, qualifications, rank and talents of the persons who shall have received a call, nomination, or special appointment to fill the vacancies throughout his district.

ART. 14. The inspector shall send monthly to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, an accurate report of all vacancies in the office of teacher, and of all new appointments, (except what concerns the schools for children of tender age,) and of every detail mentioned in the preceding article, in order that such reports may be published, in so far as it shall be thought advisable, in the periodical work entitled "*Bydragen*," &c.

ART. 15. The inspectors shall take care, in the event of a vacancy in the office of inspector in any district, whether by resignation, death, or other cause, that all the papers and documents relating to it be delivered in good order to the person who shall succeed.

ART. 16. When any such vacancy shall occur, whether by death, resignation, or other cause, the inspection of the district shall be carried on until a successor is appointed, by one or more of the inspectors belonging to that provincial board, according to a temporary arrangement to be made by the said board on each vacancy, and approved of by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

The parties discharging the duties of a vacant inspectorship shall be entitled to all the emoluments belonging to the office.

ART. 17. The recommendations for filling up vacancies among the school inspectors of a district shall in future be made by the respective boards of education, at their first meeting after the vacancy shall have occurred, and shall be transmitted to the provincial authorities; and if any circumstances shall prevent this being done, these shall be communicated to the said authorities during the session of the board.

ART. 18. The ordinary meetings of the boards shall be held in the towns where the provincial authorities reside, at least three times a year; the one during Easter week, the other two in the second week of July and October. The particular days and hours shall be fixed by the boards themselves, who shall advertise them in the *Bydragen*.

ART. 19. Extraordinary meetings shall be held:

1. When required for one or more examinations. They shall be regulated as provided in the code of local regulations;

2. When specially ordered, either by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, or by the provincial authorities; and, in that case, the party calling the meeting shall defray all expenses, at a reasonable rate;

3. When the members consider it necessary or advisable to hold an extraordinary meeting; but it shall then be at their own expense.

ART. 20. All the members of the board shall be bound to be present at these meetings, and can only be excused by a case of urgent necessity.

ART. 21. The offices of president and secretary of the board shall be filled by all the members in rotation, but the length of service of any individual may be prolonged provided it be with his consent.

ART. 22. If the board shall be desirous of appointing to the office of secretary a person who is not a member of the board, the proposal shall be submitted to the provincial authorities, and the appointment shall be made by the Grand Pensionary. Nevertheless, such appointment shall not carry along with it any increase of the grant assigned to each board.

ART. 23. These meetings, both ordinary and extraordinary, shall not be dissolved, until all the business to be transacted, shall have been duly attended to.

ART. 24. At each ordinary meeting, each member shall give in a written report:—

1. Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, stating the time of his visit, and the observations he then made regarding the state of the schools, in all the different particulars.

2. Of the meetings he has held of the schoolmasters for the purpose of communicating with them respecting their duties.

3. Of the examinations which have taken place before him of masters of the lowest class, and of the higher classes, by virtue of Art. 2, of Regulation B.; the whole accompanied by such particulars as shall be deemed of importance.

4. Of the changes and other events which shall have taken place in his district, relative to any school or schoolmaster, since the last meeting, and especially all vacancies of masterships, the delivery of deeds of call, nomination, or special appointment of every degree and of every class, setting forth the most important circumstances connected with them: the appointment of local inspectors in places of minor extent; the changes that may have occurred in the local school boards; the inspection of a new primary school or school of industry; the admission of any teacher of languages; the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of schools; the introduction of school-books, other than those contained in the general list of books, in the private schools of both classes; the measures that have been taken to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; the measures that have been taken to secure the schools being uninterruptedly kept open and attended; any difficulties they may have encountered; the encouragement or otherwise which the masters may have met

with; and the examinations of pupils in the schools. The inspector shall further point out the particular parts which he wishes to have inserted in the above mentioned monthly publication *Bydragen*.

ART. 25. From these written documents and other private information, as well as from the written reports of the local school boards, (as mentioned in the following article,) every school inspector shall draw up annually, previous to the meeting held in Easter week, a general report on the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. He shall state therein the reasons why he has not visited, or has not visited more than once, any particular school in the course of the preceding year. He shall state such proposals as appear to him deserving of attention, and which may tend to the improvement of primary instruction.

That general report, together with the ordinary written reports of the past month, shall be presented to the meeting which is held after Easter.

ART. 26. In order that the school inspectors may not omit to mention in their annual report any of the particulars stated in the preceding article, the local school boards or their individual members, in so far as concerns the schools placed under their individual inspection, shall draw up a report in writing, similar to that required from the school-inspectors, before the end of February, at latest.

This report shall also contain every particular relating to the schools; it shall be presented to a meeting of the local board, and shall be transmitted afterward to the inspector of the district, to be used by him for the before-mentioned purpose.

ART. 27. From these annual reports of the different members of the respective provincial boards, each of them shall draw up a brief and general summary of the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his province; and two copies shall be made thereof.

ART. 28. At the end of the ordinary meeting the provincial boards shall forward, or cause to be forwarded, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, within fifteen days:—

1. An authentic extract from the minutes or proceedings of that meeting, and of any extraordinary meetings that may have been held;

2. The original written reports delivered in by each member;

3. A list of the persons who shall have been examined during the sitting of the board, ordinary and extraordinary, stating the results of the examinations, and particularly the ranks which the different persons shall have obtained, in order that publication may be made of all that shall be considered necessary to be made public in the periodical work intitled *Bydragen*.

ART. 29. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting held in Easter week, each board shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within the space of four weeks, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, besides the documents mentioned in the preceding article,—

1. One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.

2. The originals of the general reports of the different members of the boards.

3. The originals of the annual written reports of the different local boards.

4. A detailed statement, taken from the report of each of the members of the proposals which each board shall be desirous of bringing under the considera-

tion of the next annual general meeting, or which it has been resolved to lay before the provincial authorities.

ART. 30. A similar authentic copy of the annual general summary shall be forwarded by the board, within the same period to the provincial authorities. All the other documents shall in like manner be laid before the provincial authorities, if required, or the member of the provincial government specially intrusted with the care of the primary schools and of primary instruction. For that purpose, all the original documents forwarded to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, namely, the different written reports of the several inspectors, their annual reports, and the annual reports of the different local boards, shall be returned to the member who officiated as secretary at the last meeting, after the purpose for which they are sent to the Secretary of State shall have been served; and within the period of two months at the latest, after their receipt: and these documents shall be afterward deposited among the papers of the respective boards.

ART. 31. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, restrict, and extend the present regulation in such manner as he shall deem advisable.

In conformity with Article 21, of the law, which is placed at the head of the present decree, the Grand Pensionary shall give public notice of the period when all former statutes, ordinances, laws, and regulations, touching the government of schools, shall be repealed and made of non-effect; and more particularly the decree of the 29th July, 1803, as well as all regulations, general and particular, which were founded upon it.

In conformity therewith, we ordain and enjoin, that the present law shall be published and fixed up in all places which it concerns, and order that all whom it concerns do see that it be fully carried into execution.

Given at The Hague, the 3d of April, 1806.

(Signed) R. J. SCHIMMELPENNINCK,

Grand Pensionary.

And, by order, The General Secretary of State,

(Signed) C. G. HULTMAN.

The superiority of public elementary instruction in Holland, is attributed, by her own educators, and by intelligent foreigners, who have visited her schools in the rural districts, as well as in the large towns, to that system of special inspection, combined with specific and enforced preparation of all candidates for the office of teacher, and subsequent gradation of rank and pay, according to character and skill, which has now been in operation nearly half a century, ever since the first school law of the Batavian Republic, in 1806, drawn up by that wise statesman, M. Van der Palm. The following extracts will give at once this testimony, and an intelligent account of the system of inspection.

Baron Cuvier, in his "*Report to the French Government on the establishment of Public Instruction in Holland*," in 1811, after speaking with special commendation of the system of inspection, remarks:

"The government is authorized to grant to each province a certain sum to meet the compensation, and the expenses of travel, and meeting of the inspectors. The mode of choosing them is excellent; they are taken from clergymen, or laymen of education, who have signalized themselves by their interest in the education of children, and skill in the local management of schools; from the teachers who have distinguished themselves in their vocation; and in the large towns, from the professors of the Universities and higher grade of schools."

Mr. W. E. Hickson, now Principal of the Mechanics Institute in Liverpool, in an "*Account of the Dutch and German Schools*," published in 1840, remarks:

"In Holland, education is, on the whole, more faithfully carried out than in most of the German States, and we may add that, notwithstanding the numerous Normal Schools of Prussia, (institutions in which Holland, although possessing two, is still deficient,) the Dutch schoolmasters are decidedly superior to the Prussian, and the schools of primary instruction consequently in a more efficient state. This superiority we attribute entirely to a better system of inspection. In Prussia, the inspectors of schools are neither sufficiently numerous, nor are their powers sufficiently extensive. Mr. Streiz, the inspector for the province of Posen, confessed to us the impossibility of personally visiting every one of the 1,635 schools in his district, and admitted that he was obliged, in his returns, to depend to a great extent upon the reports of local school committees. In Holland, inspection is the basis upon which the whole fabric of popular instruction rests.

The constitution of the Board is well worthy of attention; there can be no judges of the qualifications of teachers equal to those whose daily employment consists in visiting schools, and comparing the merits of different plans of instruction. But the power given to the inspector does not end here: by virtue of his office he is a member of every local board, and when vacant situations in schools are to be filled up, a new examination is instituted before him into the merits of the different candidates. It is upon his motion that the appointment is made, and upon his report to the higher authorities a master is suspended or dismissed for misconduct. Through his influence children of more than ordinary capacity in the schools he visits, are transferred, as pupils, to the Normal Schools, in order to be trained for masters; and through his active agency all improved plans or methods of instruction are diffused throughout the various institutions of the country."

M. Cousin, in a Report to the minister of Public Instruction in France, in 1836, "*on the state of Education in Holland,*" while giving a preference to the school law of Prussia, in its provision for Normal Schools, and the classification of public schools, and especially for the support of the higher class of primary schools, assigns the palm to Holland, in the matter of school inspection.

"The provincial boards of primary instruction, with their great and various powers, constitute, in my mind, the chief superiority of the Dutch over the Prussian law. They resemble the *Schul-collegium*, which forms a part of every provincial consistory in Prussia; but they are far better, for the *Schul-collegium* is not composed of inspectors. It sends out some of its members to inspect, as occasion requires, but inspection is not its function. It judges from written documents, and not from ocular proof, and is generally obliged to rely upon the sole testimony of the member sent to inspect; whereas in Holland, the board, being both inspectors and judges of inspections, are on the one hand better judges, in consequence of the experience they have acquired in a constant routine of inspection; and, on the other hand, they are better inspectors, by what they learn at the board, when acting as judges and governors, a combination eminently practical, and uniting what is almost every where separated. * * * * *

Every inspector resides in his own district, and he is bound to inspect every school at least twice a year, and he has jurisdiction over the primary schools of every grade within the district. Without his approval no one can either be a public or a private teacher; and no public or private teacher can retain his situation, or be promoted, or receive any gratuity; for no commissioner has any power in his absence, and he is either the chairman or the influential member of all meetings that are held. He is thus at the head of the whole of the primary instruction in his particular district. He is required to repair three times a year to the chief town of the province, to meet the other district inspectors of the province, and a conference is held, the governor of the province presiding, which lasts for a fortnight or three weeks, during which time each inspector reads a report upon the state of his district, and brings before the meeting all such questions as belong to them. As each province has its own particular code of regulations for its primary schools, founded upon the law and its general regulations, the provincial board examines whether all the proceedings of the several inspectors have been conformable to that particular code; they look to the strict and uniform execution of the code; they pass such measures as belong to them to originate, and they draw up the annual report which is to be presented to the central administration, and submit such amendments as appear to them necessary or useful, and of which the central administration is constituted the judge. Under the Minister of the Interior there is a high functionary, the Inspector-general of Primary Instruction; and from time to time a general meeting is summoned by the government, to be held at the Hague, to which each provincial board sends a deputy; and thus, from the Inspector-general of the Hague, down to the local inspector of the smallest district, the whole of the primary instruction is under the direction of inspectors. Each inspector has charge of his own district, each provincial board has charge of its province; and the general meeting, which may be called the assembly of the states-general of primary instruction, has charge of the whole kingdom. All these authorities are, in their several degrees, analogous in their nature; for all are public functionaries, all are paid and responsible officers. The district-inspector is responsible to the provincial Board of Commissioners; and they are responsible to the Inspector-general and the Minister of the Interior. In this learned and very simple hierarchy the powers of every member are clearly defined and limited."

Mr. George Nicholls, in a "*Report on the condition of the Laboring Poor in Holland and Belgium,*" to the Poor Law Commissioners of England, in 1838, remarks:

"The measures adopted in Holland to promote the education of all classes,

have apparently resulted from the conviction that the moral and social character of the people, their intelligence, and their capacity for increasing the resources of the country, must in a great measure depend upon the manner in which they are trained for the fulfillment of their several duties. The state has not rendered education actually obligatory upon the municipalities, neither has it required evidence of the education of the children of the poorer classes by any educational test; for a sense of the importance of education pervades the entire community—it is sought by the poor for their children, with an earnestness similar to that observed in the more wealthy classes in other countries; and in Holland, the direct interference of government is confined to regulating the mode of instruction, by means of an organized system of inspection.

This system, however much it may interfere with the liberty of the subject, has certainly some advantages. The poor, who have no means of judging for themselves, have, in the certificate given to every schoolmaster, some sort of guarantee that the person to whom they send their children is not an ignorant charlatan, professing to teach what he has never learned, and in the next place it secures to those who devote themselves to the profession a much higher rate of remuneration than they would receive if, as with us, every broken-down tradesman could open a school when able to do nothing else. This exclusion of absolute incapacity is also a means, and a very powerful one, of raising the character of the profession in popular estimation. With us, any man can become a schoolmaster, as easily as he can a coal-merchant, by simply putting a brass plate on his door; but in Holland, (and the same system is very general in Germany,) some degree of study is rendered indispensable, and the whole class, therefore, stand out from the rest of the community as men of superior attainments, and enjoy that consideration which men of cultivated minds everywhere command, when not surrounded by coadjutors below rather than above the common level.

In Holland, there is no profession that ranks higher than that of a schoolmaster, and a nobleman would scarcely, if at all, command more respect than is paid to many of those who devote their lives to the instruction of youth. The same personal consideration is extended to the assistant teacher or usher. We were much struck with the difference in the position of persons of this class abroad, from their lot at home, when we were visiting a school for the middle classes at Hesse-Cassel. The school contained 200 children, and was supported partly by the town and the government, and partly by the payments of the scholars. The charge for daily instruction was from 1s. 8d. to 5s. per month. The children were distributed in six classess—to each class a separate master or assistant teacher. We were conducted over the establishment by the head master or director of the school, and the first thing which drew our attention was the extreme ceremony with which we were introduced to each of the assistant masters, and the many apologies made by the professor for interrupting them, although but for a moment, in their important labors. We saw those treated as equals, who are in England often estimated as only on a rank with grooms or upper servants.

The most important branch of administration, as connected with education, is that which relates to school inspection. All who have ever been anxious either to maintain the efficiency of a school, or to improve its character, will appreciate the importance of the frequent periodical visits of persons having a knowledge of what education is, and who are therefore able to estimate correctly the amount and kind of instruction given. Let a school established by voluntary subscriptions be placed to-day upon the best possible footing, if no vigilance be exercised by its founders, and if the master be neither encouraged nor stimulated to exertion by their presence, his salary will speedily be converted into a sinecure, and the school will degenerate to the lowest point of utility."

Professor Bache, in his "*Report on Education in Europe*," in 1838, to the Trustees of Girard College, remarks:

"The system of primary instruction in Holland is particularly interesting to an American, from its organization in an ascending series; beginning with the local school authorities, and terminating, after progressive degrees of representation, as it were, in the highest authority; instead of emanating, as in the centralized systems, from that authority. A fair trial has been given to a system

of inspection which is almost entirely applicable to our country, and which has succeeded with them."

The school system of Holland consists of a brief law, of only twenty-three articles, drawn up by M. Van der Palm, the distinguished Oriental scholar, in 1801, and modified by M. Van der Ende, in 1806, and a series of Regulations drawn up by the state department having charge of this subject, to carry out the provisions of the law. The law was so wisely framed, and was so well adapted to the spirit, customs and habits of the people, that it has survived three great revolutions: first, that which converted the Batavian Republic into a kingdom, at first independent, but afterward incorporated with the French empire; next, that which dethroned Louis, restored the house of Orange, and united Holland and Belgium in one monarchy; and lastly, the revolution which again separated the two countries, and restricted the kingdom of the Netherlands to its former limits. During these thirty years, the law of 1806 was never interfered with; it could only be altered by another law, and when the government, in 1829, in order to please the Belgian liberal party, brought forward a new general law, which made some very objectionable changes in that of 1806, the chambers resisted, and the government were obliged to withdraw the bill.

The following provisions will show the spirit and scope of the law, and general regulations.

IX. "The school inspector of the district is authorized, in concert with the local authorities, to intrust one or more known and respectable persons with a local inspection, subordinate to his own, over the school or schools, and also over all the teachers of both sexes in the place, whether village, hamlet, or otherwise, and for each separately.

X. In all the more considerable towns and places, the parochial authorities, in concert with the school inspector of the district, shall establish a local superintendence of the primary schools, which shall consist of one or more persons, according to local circumstances, but so as each member shall have a particular division, and all the schools in that division shall be confided to him individually. These persons shall collectively constitute, with the school inspector of the district, the local school board.

XVII. No one shall be allowed to become a candidate for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

XXII. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

XXIII. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of the religious community to which they belong; but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

XXX. The provincial* and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps:

* The constitution of Holland is somewhat singular, and would seem at first sight to be founded upon what perhaps may one day be recognized as the true theory of representative government, that of progressive, intermediate elections. The rate-payers elect the *Kiezers*, the *Kiezers* elect the *Raad* or town council, the town council elect a certain proportion of the members of the provincial governments, and the provincial governments elect the lower chamber of the *States General*, or House of Commons.

The States-General consist of two chambers. The upper chamber is somewhat of a House of Lords, but not hereditary. The members, fifty in number, receive 250*l.* per annum for traveling ex-

1. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.
2. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year."

REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE EXAMINATION OF THOSE WHO DESIRE TO BECOME TEACHERS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I. The teachers shall be divided into four classes, or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

VII. In these examinations, the object shall be to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

VIII. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavor to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinions on morals and religion; the sphere of his attainments, both with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

IX. The subjects of examination shall be as follows:

1. Reading from different printed and written characters; and whether with a good pronunciation and a proper and natural accent, and with a knowledge of punctuation.
2. Some words and phrases designedly wrong shall be shown to the candidate, to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.
3. To ascertain his acquaintance with the grammatical structure of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated to him, which he shall analyze, and point out the parts of speech; and he must give proofs of a familiar acquaintance with the declensions snd conjugations.
4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle, and small hand, and shall make his own pens.
5. Some questions in arithmetic shall be proposed to him, confining this especially to such as are of common occurrence, and which shall be sufficient to show the dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions. Questions shall be put to him on the theoretical parts, and especially on decimal arithmetic.
6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of singing.
7. Different questions shall be proposed relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as the candidate proposes to teach.
8. A passage in French, or in any other language in which the candidate wishes to be examined, shall be given to him to read and translate. A passage in Dutch shall be dictated to him, to be translated by him, either in writing or *viva voce*, into the language which forms the subject of the examination. He shall be required to give, *de improviso*, in the same language, a composition in the form of a letter or narrative, &c., all for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of acquaintance he possesses with the language in question, in orthography, grammar and punctuation.

penses. The lower chamber, before the Revolution, consisted of 110 members, now but of fifty-five. The provincial governments are:

North Brabant,	42 members.	Friesland,	54 members.
Guelderland,	90 "	Overyssel,	53 "
Holland,	90 "	Groningen,	38 "
Zealand,	46 "	Drenthe,	24 "
Utrecht,	36 "		

The members of these provincial governments are not elected by the town councils, b[illegible] bility; the town councils, and Kiezers of the [illegible] nearly in equal pr[illegible] business affecting more than one province, is r[illegible] of two comm[illegible] cabinets, elected by the members of the prov[illegible] On these comm[illegible] sit for each province

X. The examination upon the acquirements of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to inquire into his capacity for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children to know the letters, figures, and the first principles; then reading, writing, and arithmetic. They shall then require him to relate some story or portion of history, in order to discover the degree of talent he possesses to present things to children with clearness and precision; care shall be taken, if there be a convenient opportunity, and if it be thought advisable, to have some children present, of different ages, and of different degrees of attainment, in order to ascertain more particularly his skill in practical teaching.

XI. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments; as also in general on the best methods to be adopted, not only to develop and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but most especially to bring them up in the exercise of the Christian virtues.

XII. When the examination is concluded, the examiners shall deliver to the candidate, who desires to obtain a general admission as a master, and has given proof of sufficient ability, a deed of that admission, according to the extent of his ability; and in this shall be stated, as distinctly as possible, the extent and the nature of the talents and of the acquirements of the candidate, as proved by his examination; and it shall declare the rank he has obtained, if it be in the first, second, third, or fourth class, and consequently such a general admission as shall give him a right to apply for the situation of a master, according to the rank which has been assigned to him. Finally, the said deed shall declare the branches of education, and the languages for which he shall have obtained the general admission.

XIII. The schoolmistresses or teachers of languages who shall have passed an examination, and have given sufficient proofs of their ability, shall also receive a deed which shall contain, besides a declaration of the extent and amount of their acquirements and talents, as proved by the examination, a general admission either for the office of schoolmistress or teacher of languages. That deed shall moreover expressly declare the branches of study and the languages which the person examined shall be entitled to teach.

XIV. All the deeds mentioned in the two preceding articles shall be alike throughout the whole extent of the republic, both in the matter and the form. If they are issued by a provincial board of education, they shall be signed by the president and secretary, and the seal of the board shall be affixed to them. The deeds issued by an inspector, or by a local board, shall be signed by the inspector only, or by the secretary of the local board.

XV. The certificates for the first and second class, issued by a provincial board, shall entitle those who obtain them to be masters in all primary schools, public as well as private, of the two classes, in all places throughout the republic, without exception; whereas the deeds issued by a local board shall confer no privilege beyond that locality.

XVI. The certificates for the third class, as well as those for the fourth or lowest class, shall confer the privilege of becoming teachers, except in schools established in places whose wants are proportioned to the rank and capacity of such masters, and which are situated within the jurisdiction of the provincial board.

XVII. In order that the provisions contained in the two preceding articles may be more easily carried into effect, the schools in small towns and less considerable places, more fully described in Art. 9 of regulation A, shall be classed by the different inspectors and by the provincial boards, into higher, middle, and lower schools, upon a principle hereafter provided. This classification, which shall be submitted to the provincial authorities for approval, shall be solely for the purpose of preventing the principal school falling into the hands of incompetent masters; while, at the same time, it leaves the power of placing a very able master over the smallest school.

XVIII. In the towns or places of greatest importance, no master of the fourth or lowest class shall be eligible to either a public or a private school. The local boards are even recommended to take care, as much as possible, that the [illegible]ition in the schools of their towns shall not be entrusted to any other than [illegible]*s of the first or second class.*

[illegible]. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of

the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published in the periodical work entitled 'Bydragen tot den Staat,' &c., (which is still published.)"

It is impossible not to see that the stimulating effect of a series of examinations of this character, before a tribunal composed of qualified judges, must produce a class of teachers for the work of primary instruction unequaled in any other part of the world. But the soul of the whole system is *inspection*, or in other words, active and vigilant superintendence,—intelligent direction, and real responsibility,—all of which are involved in the system of inspection carried out in Holland. Without inspection there can be no competent tribunal for the examination of teachers; without inspection, local school committees and conductors of schools would be irresponsible to public opinion, inert and negligent; without inspection there would be no person constantly at hand sufficiently informed upon the state of education to suggest the measures required for the promotion of its objects; without inspection there would be no diffusion of new ideas, no benefiting by the experience of others, no rivalry in improvement, no progress. The following extracts will show the manner in which the duties of inspection are provided for.

REGULATIONS FOR SCHOOL INSPECTORS, AND FOR THE BOARDS OF EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT PROVINCES.

II. "Each inspector shall make himself acquainted with the number and situations of the primary schools, and also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. It shall be his duty to see that, besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall be a sufficient number of schools for children of tender age, organized in the best possible manner, and also schools of industry. Finally, he shall take care, that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different parishes.

III. He shall make it his business to become personally acquainted with the different masters in his district, and with the extent of their fitness, and shall keep a note thereof.

IV. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose, he shall at fixed periods require a certain number of them to meet him, either at his own house or in other parts of his district, and as frequently as possible.*

V. The inspector shall be bound *to visit twice a year* all the schools in his district, which are directly subject to his supervision. He is hereby exhorted to repeat those visits at different times, either when a particular case calls for it, or for the general good.

VI. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed: and according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen or heard. Every school inspector

* In compliance with the spirit of this article, societies of schoolmasters have been formed, under the auspices of the inspectors, at different times, in the districts of each province, which keep up a rivalry of improvement. They meet at stated times, generally every month.

shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

IX. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year.

XVIII. The ordinary meetings of the boards shall be held in the towns where the provincial authorities reside, at least three times a year; the one during Easter week, the other two in the second week of July and October.

XXIV. At each ordinary meeting, each member shall give in a written report:—

1. Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, stating the time of his visit, and the observations he then made regarding the state of the schools, in all the different particulars.

2. Of the meetings he has held of the schoolmasters for the purpose of communicating with them respecting their duties.

3. Of the examinations which have taken place before him of masters of the lowest class, and of the higher classes.

4. Of the changes and other events which shall have taken place in his district, relative to any school or schoolmaster, since the last meeting, and especially all vacancies of masterships, the delivery of deeds of call, nomination, or special appointment of every degree and of every class, setting forth the most important circumstances connected with them: the appointment of local inspectors in places of minor extent; the changes that may have occurred in the local school boards; the inspection of a new primary school or school of industry; the admission of any teacher of languages; the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of schools; the introduction of school books, other than those contained in the general list of books, in the private schools of both classes; the measures that have been taken to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; the measures that have been taken to secure the schools being uninterruptedly kept open and attended; any difficulties they may have encountered; the encouragement or otherwise which the masters may have met with; and the examinations of pupils in the schools. The inspector shall further point out the particular parts which he wishes to have inserted in the above mentioned monthly publication, (*Bydragen.*)

XXV. From these written documents and other private information, as well as from the written reports of the local school boards, (as mentioned in the following article,) every school inspector shall draw up annually, previous to the meeting held in Easter week, a general report on the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. He shall state therein the reasons why he has not visited, or has not visited more than once, any particular school in the course of the preceding year. He shall state such proposals as appear to him deserving of attention, and which may tend to the improvement of primary instruction.

XXVI. In order that the school inspectors may not omit to mention, in their annual report, any of the particulars stated in the preceding article, the local school boards, or their individual members, in so far as concerns the schools placed under their individual inspection, shall draw up a report in writing, similar to that required from the school inspectors, before the end of February at latest.

XXIX. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting held in Easter week, each board shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within the space of four weeks, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, besides the documents mentioned in the preceding article,

1. One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.

2. The originals of the general reports of the different members of the boards.

3. The originals of the annual written reports of the different local boards.

4. A detailed statement, taken from the report of each of the members, of the proposals which each board shall be desirous of bringing under the consideration of the next annual general meeting, or which it has been resolved to lay before the provincial authorities."

REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE GENERAL ORDER TO BE OBSERVED IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I. "The primary schools shall be open without intermission the whole year, except during the times fixed for the holidays.

II. During the whole time devoted to the lessons, the master shall be present from the beginning to the end; he shall not be engaged in any thing which is unconnected with the teaching, nor absent himself from school, except for reasons of absolute necessity.

III. The master shall take care that the pupils do not unnecessarily go out of school; and especially that they be quiet and attentive; and, when in the play-ground, that they always conduct themselves in a peaceable, respectable, and modest manner.

IV. When the number of pupils shall exceed seventy, measures shall be taken for providing a second master or an under master.

V. The pupils shall be entered, as much as possible, at fixed terms in the course of the year.

VI. At the opening and at the breaking up of each class, a Christian prayer, solemn, short, and suitable to the occasion, shall be said daily or weekly. At the same time, a hymn, adapted to the circumstances, may be sung.

VII. The pupils shall be divided into three classes, each of which shall have its distinct place; and on every occasion when the school meets, each shall receive the instruction that belongs to it.

VIII. The instruction shall be communicated simultaneously to all the pupils in the same class; and the master shall take care that, during that time, the pupils in the two other classes are usefully employed.

IX. The instruction in the different classes, and in the different branches taught, shall be as much as possible conveyed by the use of the black board.

X. When the master shall think it advisable, he shall reward the most advanced pupils by employing them to teach some parts of the lessons to the beginners.

XI. The master shall take care that the pupils be at all times clean in their dress, well washed and combed, and he shall at the same time pay the strictest attention to every thing that may contribute to their health.

XII. The school-rooms shall be at all times kept in proper order; for that purpose they shall be ventilated in the intervals of school hours, and cleaned out twice a week.

XIII. An examination of each school shall take place at least once a year. Upon that occasion the pupils of a lower class shall be passed to a higher; and as far as circumstances will allow, rewards shall be given to those who have distinguished themselves by their application and good conduct.

XIV. When a pupil at the end of the course of study shall leave the school, if he shall have distinguished himself by the progress he has made and by his good conduct, a certificate of honor shall be presented to him.

XV. A code of regulations shall be drawn up for each particular school, and this, whether written or printed, shall be pasted on a board, hung up in the room, and from time to time read and explained by the master.

XVI. The said codes shall be issued by the authorities over each school; their object shall be, to regulate the hours of teaching and how these shall be divided among the three classes."

As the masters were prohibited from teaching any particular religious doctrine in the schools, the government, through the Secretary of State for the Home Department, addressed a circular letter to the different ecclesiastical bodies in the country, inviting them to take upon themselves, out of school hours, the whole instruction of the young, either by properly-arranged lessons in the catechism, or by any other means. Answers were returned from the Synod of the Dutch Reformed church and other ecclesiastical bodies, assenting to the separation of doctrinal from the other instruction of the schools, and pledging themselves to extend

the former through their ministers of the different religious communions. On the reception of these answers, the government authorized the pro vincial boards of education:

"To exhort all schoolmasters to hand a complete list, every six months of the names and residences of their pupils belonging to any religious communion to such as should apply for it; and to take care that their pupils attend to the religious instruction provided for them.

To invite the governors of orphan asylums and workhouses, and similar establishments, to second the measures which the authorities of the communion shall take in reference to religious instruction.

To exhort the school inspectors, and through them the local school boards, to co-operate, as far as possible, with the consistories and ministers in their efforts to give instruction in the doctrines of their religion, so long as they confine themselves to their special province, and do not interfere with the business of the schools or the authority of the persons intrusted with their management by the government."

Thus did the Batavian Republic provide that the children should be prepared for "*the exercise of all the social and Christian virtues;*" well knowing, that if the schools did no more than impart a knowledge of the material world, there might be profound ignorance of the good and the beautiful. and of the true destiny of human nature.

On the practical operation of the provisions for religious and moral education, we adduce the following testimony. Mr. Kay remarks—

The law of 1801 proclaims, as the great end of all instruction, the exercise of the social and Christian virtues. In this respect it agrees with the law of Prussia and France; but it differs from the law of these countries in the way by which it attempts to attain this end. In France, and all the German countries, the schools are the auxiliaries, so to speak, of the churches; for, whilst the schools are open to all sects, yet the teacher is a man trained up in the particular doctrines of the majority of his pupils, and required to teach those doctrines during certain hours, the children who differ from him in religious belief, being permitted to absent themselves from the religious lessons, on condition that their parents provided elsewhere for their religious instruction. But, in Holland, the teachers are required to give religious instruction to all the children, and to avoid most carefully touching on any of the grounds of controversy between the different sects.

Mr. Nicholls says: "As respects religion, the population of Holland is divided, in about equal proportions, into Catholic, Lutheran, and Protestants of the reformed Calvinistic Church; and the ministers of each are supported by the state. The schools contain, without distinction, the children of every sect of Christians. The religious and moral instruction afforded to the children is taken from the pages of Holy Writ, and the whole course of education is mingled with a frequent reference to the great general evidences of revelation. Biblical history is taught, not as a dry narration of facts, but as a store-house of truths, calculated to influence the affections, to correct and elevate the manners, and to inspire sentiments of devotion and virtue. The great principles and truths of Christianity, in which all are agreed, are likewise carefully inculcated; but those points, which are the subjects of difference and religious controversy, form no part of the instructions of the schools. This department of religious teaching is confided to the ministers of each persuasion, who discharge this portion of their duties out of school; but within the schools the common ground of instruction is faithfully preserved, and they are, consequently, altogether free from the spirit of jealousy or proselytism. We witnessed the exercise of a class of the children of notables of Haarlem, (according to the simultaneous method,) respecting the death and resurrection of

our Saviour, by a minister of the Lutheran church. The class contained children of Catholics, Calvinists, and other denominations of Christians, as well as Lutherans, and all disputable doctrinal points were carefully avoided. The Lutherans are the smallest in number, the Calvinists the largest, and the Catholics about midway between the two; but all appear to live together in perfect amity, without the slightest distinction in the common intercourse of life; and this circumstance, so extremely interesting in itself, no doubt facilitated the establishment of the general system of education here described, the *effects of which are so apparent in the highly moral and intellectual condition of the Dutch people.*"

Baron Cuvier, in his report to the French government in 1811, says:

The means devised for the religious instruction of all persuasions are extremely ingenious, and at the same time highly appropriate, without involving them in dangerous controversy. The particular doctrines of each communion are taught on Sundays, in the several places of worship, and by the clergy. The history of the New Testament, the life and doctrines of Jesus Christ, and those doctrines in which all Christians agree, are taught in the schools on Saturdays, the day on which the Jews do not come to school, on account of their sabbath. But those truths which are common to all religions, pervade, are connected with, and are intimately mixed up with every branch of instruction, and every thing else may be said to be subordinate to them.

Mr. Chambers, of Edinburgh, in describing a visit to the public school of Rotterdam in the Edinburgh Journal, observes:

Instruction is given in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history of Holland, Bible history, and singing. I made inquiry of the head master, if any religious (dogmatic) instruction was given in the school, and he answered there was not. The children belong to different religious bodies and attend their respective clergymen on stated occasions, for instruction in the doctrines and principles of religion. The Bible history which is taught in the schools comprises only parts, in the truth of which all parties agree. The great regularity and silence which prevailed, the extent of the gratuitous instruction conferred, and the harmonious congregating together in one school of so many children of different religious creeds, were circumstances which I could not pass over unmoved; my only wish that the mass of my countrymen could conveniently have been introduced to enjoy the scene.

All the children of Holland may not, indeed, be at school at any given time, but every one goes to school at some time, and therefore there are none without education. This result is sensibly observed in the aspect of the Dutch towns. You see no bands of loose and disorderly children in the streets, such as offend the eye in the lower parts of almost every large town in Britain.

In all of the Dutch schools, habits of propriety, cleanliness, and order, are, not only in, but out of doors, strictly enforced, as well as practically illustrated in the manners of the teacher. Mr. Chambers quotes in a note the remark of a correspondent of the London Standard, that 'in no country is the mass of the people so religious, showing that the mode of education has not hurt religion."

Mr. Arnold, Inspector of Schools in England, in his "*Report on Popular Education in France, Switzerland, and Holland,*" in 1860, says:

I have seen no primary schools worthy to be matched, even now, with those of Holland. Other far more competent observers have come to the same conclusion. M. Cuvier has described the emotion of astonishment and delight with which, on his first entrance into one of them, he was struck. As he found the law in 1811, so M. Cousin found it in 1836; the same fruits it was bearing in 1836, it had been bearing in 1811; and for them he expressed the highest admiration. Such is the present excellent situation of primary instruction. In Prussia it may be even somewhat more widely diffused; but nowhere, probably, has it more thorough soundness or solidity.

REMARKS ON THE MIXED SCHOOL SYSTEM OF HOLLAND.

THE following remarks on the experience of Holland in attempting to exclude the peculiar teaching of different religious denominations are taken from Schmid's "Encyklopädie, &c.:"

The more decided the influence which the removal of the sectarian element from the public school must by degrees exert upon the national life, the more attentively should we study the experience of Holland in its system of mixed schools.

There still exists so little uniformity of opinion respecting the estimation that should be placed upon the regulations adopted since 1806, that during the last ten years, for the first time really, the subject has been warmly contested; and even through the Groenist opposition suffered in 1857 a decided defeat, yet that event did not decisively settle the question. In a contest like this the more rudely opinions clash, the more careful must we be not to lose sight of the actual working of the system. And should we find in its operation certain distinctly marked results presenting themselves, we still are met at once by the difficulty of separating the influence which the school exerts upon the life and upon the moral and religious character of the people, from the influence which is exerted by other causes. Moreover the space of three years is far too brief to enable us to estimate already the real influence of the law of 1857. It becomes necessary, therefore, to recur to the results of the period intervening between 1806 and 1856; this, however, will answer our purpose sufficiently, inasmuch as the same results, though more decided in degree, must be developed from the new condition of things.

Let us look at the circumstances to which the ordinance of April 8, 1806, owed its origin. Prior to that date, the Protestant influence in the Netherlands had possessed absolute control even over the schools, though during the eighteenth century respect for the opinions of the clergy had even here greatly declined. The deistical ideas which had become prevalent respecting Christian truth, acknowledged no occasion for the life which the church required nor for the regulations which the church laid down. The political movements of 1795, however, inaugurated an equality of rights to the small Roman Catholic population, and this minority could not protect itself more effectually than by sustaining a law which took from the public schools their original Protestant character, and banished from them the catechism and all sectarian instruction. A portion

of the population of the cities was but slightly effected by these measures; instruction was here obtained in a large degree at the private schools of the second class, which, as well as the many poor-schools (Diakonie schuler) of the church, and others, still for ten years longer preserved their sectarian position, and continued the use of the Bible and the practice of Christian admonitions. It was soon seen that this equality of parties existed only on paper, and that the reformed church hoped still to preserve for a long time its former ascendancy, principally by its instrumentality in the training of by far the greater portion of the teachers. This was also favored by the indifference of the popular feeling, at that time, to the movements of the church, while on the other hand there was on the part of many an earnest endeavor to effect a fusion, religious and civil, of the entire nation into one whole, in order to render the establishment of purely secular schools in the Netherlands not only possible but desirable.

But the principle that had been adopted, soon extended farther than the majority had expected. The development of the matter was somewhat as follows: The Bible at first still retained its place in the commonal schools, and it was not till about the year 1816 that it began to disappear from them. Soon after the union of the Netherlands with Belgium, people were generally satisfied to have the Bible excluded from all save the evening schools. But when the evening schools also were attended by Catholic children, it became necessary that the Bible should give place here too, and it was permitted only once or twice a week to those who desired it, for a half or a quarter of an hour after the usual school hours. The reading of the Bible was to this extent restricted in the province of North Holland by a decree of the governor, in 1821. After 1830 there seems to have been a willingness to adopt a better course, as when in 1835 the provincial school committee of Gröningen directed in a circular to the teachers, that "the Bible ought to be read and explained catechetically, and exemplified by the teacher in his daily life." In 1842 attention was again called to this provision—but after this time, not the least mention is made of the use of the Bible; on the contrary, an ordinance was soon afterward issued by the governor of South Holland, forbidding the reading of the Bible "even in schools that were attended exclusively by Protestant children." If any teacher ventured to adopt a different course, it was always followed by unpleasant consequences. Thus in 1853 a teacher in the province of Utrecht was suspended by a decision of the provincial authorities "because he had used the Bible during the usual session of school as a reading book to read from to the school, and then for the purpose of explaining what had been read." The use of the Bible in school is still, at this day, to be met with only in exceptional instances, worthy of all commendation, in parishes that are wholly Protestant.

With Biblical history, the course of removal from the schools was more gradual. Opposition to this study commenced in 1830, at which time there were some Catholics, in South Holland, for example,

who made objections to the reading of the books of biblical history, that had been in use for years. Their demands were not immediately heeded, except that, in order to avoid ground for dispute, all explanation of the lesson was so far restricted that the benefit of the study was almost entirely lost. But this was not sufficient. In 1842, the bishop of the diocese, in an address to the provincial authorities, complained that the rights that had been assured to the Catholic population were violated by this instruction. Though this memorial also was followed by no public action on the part of the authorities, yet it hastened the desired removal. When it was not done voluntarily, a word of friendly council from the school superintendent, or from the mayor, sufficed. Thus in a parish of Gelderland, where among some 200 boys, there were fifteen or twenty Catholics, this study was given up at the request of the pastor. In other places the Catholic children were dismissed at the commencement of the exercise, and the mixed school thus immediately became Protestant in character. In 1853, a synodical committee of the reform church, in a report upon the condition of the churches, thus wrote; "It is well known that some civil authorities, and even superintendents of schools, in compliance with the demands of the Roman Catholic clergy, and in a spirit of perverted liberality, have requested, and in some cases, commanded the public teachers to discard the study of biblical history. * * * Hence the Christian element in the public schools has become weakened to an alarming extent." Biblical history is now to be met with only occasionally in the school-room, and when it is made use of, it is not regarded as a history of God's dealings with erring humanity, and as a mirror for the heart and life, but as a collection of biographies, and of examples worthy of imitation. The opinion is continually gaining ground that this branch of study should never be included in the public school course.

Though this result may be considered only as consequential, still it can not but be deplored most seriously, that under the name of the sectarian element, the hold of Christianity also upon the schools has been removed, and their condition in this respect, as plainly seen, is most sad.

As an acquaintance with the Holy Scriptures is most essential to the Protestant faith, so their removal from the schools is a dangerous attack upon our Protestant youth. The Bible has begun to be a strange book to the great majority of Protestants. Many suppose that it is impossible for them to understand it; others, that it is of value only to those who are theologians by profession; others again use it only in the church, for reference during service; the old family custom of beginning and closing each day with reading and meditating upon a portion of Scripture, is gradually passing away. No one therefore will wonder that more communities can be found, where for forty years nothing has been done toward imparting biblical instruction, than where it has received the attention it deserves. In regard to biblical history, we find a sad degree of ignorance, especially where it requires an understanding of the inti-

mate connection of events. We may thus account for the present imperfect and disconnected knowledge of the simplest Christian ideas, the more strange, inasmuch as formerly an intimate and practical acquaintance with religious subjects was general throughout our land. But not alone from the church do we hear a confirmation of these complaints; the preacher Van Koetsveld, writes: "The principles of Christianity in our public schools have been by degrees so supplanted by fiction and speculation, that, owing to the hostility of school committees and superintendents, it is now only here and there that, as a matter of favor, they have been suffered to remain." The synodical committee of 1856 make use of a similar expression; "one of the principal causes of these many deplorable evils, lies in the great want of sound and thorough religious information, and true Christian training. This want, which is to be met with not only among the humble, but also among the more respectable, and not unfrequently in the well educated members of society, is most intimately connected with the tendencies of our time." The same complaints, and with special reference to the schools, are made by that most zealous defender of the mixed school system, the editor of the "*Alarum*" (Wecker,) in considering the objection that might be made to his demand that biblical history should be retained in the mixed schools; he thus writes in the number for 30th April, 1857: "Are the teachers generally qualified to give the desired instruction in the manner which the public school requires? We can only answer this question in the negative. Where can young teachers now be found, who are so far advanced in the knowledge of biblical history, that they can use it for the purposes of school instruction? Look around you, and you will be convinced of the excessive ignorance upon this subject, that exists among our new teachers. How can a duty be devolved upon such teachers, for the performance of which they are wholly unprepared?" And again he says, upon the same subject; "We must assent to all these grievances, and mourn that biblical history is not at this time a subject of special study with those who are preparing themselves for an examination in the school branches. If, however, we inquire what has been done in regard to this by the school commission, the sad truth is seen prominently conspicuous. The school authorities themselves unfortunately share in the opinion that it is unnecessary to require of the teacher a special knowledge of biblical history, and the ability to make it accessory to a Christian education."

But the effect of the school law upon the study of national history is not to be overlooked. It is not, indeed, removed from the schools so generally as the other; still there is ground for much complaint. In the reading and text-books, as well as in oral instruction, pains are taken to clear our history of that which has given it the most of character and life—its Protestant element. In this way the youth have their fathers represented to them, not as they actually lived, believed, and acted, but as it might now be wished, for peace' sake, that they had lived, believed,

and acted. Thus in one school, this erroneous instruction is given; in another, the subject is omitted entirely; and almost everywhere in the mixed schools, text-books are used which conceal, or touch but lightly upon what has in fact laid the foundation of the progress and prosperity of our country. As an illustration from one of the most popular of these histories, (Kunivers',) the revolt against Spain is described as being simply and entirely political in its purpose, and the followers of Luther and Calvin, are represented as a sect dangerous to the peace of society, &c. Others do not go so far; yet their statements make upon every one the impression that, in their opinion, the period in which our ancestors ascended the funeral pile and the scaffold, was one of which the pupils in the lower and intermediate schools should learn as little as possible. The truths upon which the foundations of our state rest, and which have preserved us from the fate of Spain and Italy, and have sealed an inviolable bond between our fatherland and Orange, these truths should be passed by without notice in the mixed schools; they should read only of the distraction that accompanied the introduction of the new doctrines. Thus will the Christian Protestantism of the popular character be weakened, and, in its place, in regard to all Christian and ecclesiastical questions, there will be introduced a lukewarm liberalism, which will impress the stamp of imperfection and irresolution upon all legislative measures.

What has been subtituted for the sound religious instruction of former times in the schools? A conventional morality, a dry abstract of Christian ethics, as testified by Visser, a zealous champion of mixed schools, and superintendent in Friesland, who wrote as far back as 1821; "In the religious and moral training of most of the schools there is very much to be desired. On account of the banishment of the catechism and the prohibition of the unrestricted use of the Bible, many teachers have become of the opinion that henceforth every thing relating to the service of God must be excluded from the schools. Hence they have introduced, in place of what has been removed, a dry compilation of moral precepts, which are well adapted to train up the children to be theorists, but in no respect to make them practical people." And even this they teach from text-books prepared for the purpose. We have now almost achieved the result that was proposed by some one in 1827, that upon entering a school it should be impossible to determine whether the teacher were a Christian, a Jew, or a Turk. The school prayer at least would not betray the fact, in most cases. It is and must be so void of hue that many just omit it, and make amends by the singing of a song at the beginning and close of the school. Respecting the school books, pastor Nassau thus wrote in 1843; "There is good ground for complaint that many school-books propagate doctrines that are hostile to Christianity, and to the welfare of humanity. It is taught in these books that extraordinary happiness will attend good little children for their excellence, and evil, the naughty ones; and that no good act indeed is so insignificant as not to bring with it its percentage of temporal happiness." Such facts accord perfectly with that

false view of the relations of Christian truth to our daily life, which prompted the following examination question, in Friesland, May 2, 1859: "What means would you use, in case you thought it befitting the teacher's calling, to assist to the extent of your ability in forming the moral character of your scholars?" How nearly must the Christian character of the school be lost, where the school authorities touch so doubtingly upon matters of the first importance?

We can not better conclude these remarks, and our criticism upon the mixed school system, than with the opinion expressed by the Netherland Teachers' Association, in December, 1858, at which time Hofstede de Groot, was still presiding officer: "the law of 13th of August, is in many respects a good law. Our approval, however, is considerably modified by the fact of its giving so little security to the principles of the Christian church. If the inspectors and superintendents are convinced of the necessity of those principles, it is still possible that their influence may be preserved,—but where this is not the case, it may speedily result in their utter extinction."—(*Communicated by an Evangelical Minister of Holland.*)

LAW OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

PROMULGATED AUGUST 13, 1857.

WE *William III. by the Grace of God, King of the Netherlands, Prince of Orange-Nassau, Grand Duke of Luxemburg, &c., &c.*

To all who shall see or hear these, greeting:

WHEREAS, We have taken into consideration that (Article 194,) of the Fundamental Law provides that the establishment of public instruction, with due respect to every man's religious principles, shall be regulated by law; that throughout the kingdom sufficient public primary instruction shall be given on the part of the authorities, and that education shall be *free*,* subject always to the superintendence of the authorities, and, as far as concerns middle and primary instruction, subject also to examination into the capacity and morality of the master; all of this to be established by law;

That, in the meanwhile, and until provision shall be made for the regulation of middle and higher instruction, it is necessary to give effect to these provisions as far as primary instruction is concerned;

Therefore We, having heard the Council of State, and by and with the advice of the States General, have thought good and determined as We think good, and determine by these presents:

I. GENERAL PROVISIONS.

ARTICLE 1. Primary instruction is distinguished into ordinary and more extended instruction.

Ordinary instruction includes:—

a. Reading.
b. Writing.
c. Arithmetic.
d. The principles of Grammar
e. of the Dutch language.
f. of Geography.
g. of History.
h. of Physics.
i. Singing.

The more extended instruction is considered to include:—

k. The principles of the knowledge of the Modern Languages.
l. of Mathematics.
m. of Agriculture.
n. Gymnastics.
o. Drawing.
p. Needlework.

ART. 2. Primary instruction may be given either in schools, or in the houses of the parents or guardians of the children.

The former is school education, the latter private education.

Instruction given to the children collectively of not more than three families shall still be considered as private education.

ART. 3. Primary schools shall be distinguished as public and private schools.

* Not gratuitous, but liberty to teach and establish and attend schools

Public schools are those established and maintained by the communes, the provinces, and the government, severally or in common; all others are private schools.

Assistance may be granted to private schools on the part either of the commune or of the province under such conditions as the communal or provincial authority may deem necessary. Schools thus assisted shall be open to any children, without distinction of religious creed. The 1st and 2d clauses of (Art. 23,) are applicable to these schools.

ART. 4. No school instruction shall be given in such buildings as shall be pronounced detrimental to health by the district school inspector, or insufficient in point of room for the number of children attending the school. In the event of the decision of this officer not being acquiesced in, the matter shall be decided by the States Deputies, after a fresh and independent inquiry.

Further appeal,* from the decision of the school inspector as well as from that of the States Deputies, must be made within fourteen days, counted from the day when notice of the decision has been received by the parties interested.

All those are qualified thus to appeal to whose prejudice the decision may operate; that is to say, the parents or guardians of the children attending the school, if the school inspector shall have acquiesced in the decision of the States Deputies. Pending the final decision, instruction may continue to be given in the building objected to.

ART. 5. School education shall be given by head masters and assistant teachers, head mistresses and female assistant teachers, and both male and female apprentice teachers.

Apprentice teachers are those who, not having yet attained the age at which they can be admitted for examination as assistant teachers, assist in giving school instruction.

Having attained that age, they may continue as apprentice teachers during the time that is yet to elapse before they can be admitted for examination. Apprentice teachers failing to pass the examination mentioned in the 2d and 3d clauses, or having been unable, for reasons satisfactory to the provincial inspector, to present themselves for examination, may notwithstanding continue as apprentice teachers until the next examination.

ART. 6. Nobody is allowed to give primary instruction, who shall not possess the proofs of capacity and morality required by this law.

Foreigners require, besides, Our permission.

ART. 7. The provisions of the preceding Article are not applicable to—

a. The apprentice teachers, as far as instruction is concerned in the school where they are employed;

b. Those who give primary instruction to the children of one family exclusively;

c. Those who, not making a profession of primary instruction, but being willing to be employed without any pecuniary remuneration, may have obtained Our permission to give such instruction.

d. Candidates and Doctors in Arts and Sciences in so far as by reason of their academical degrees they are qualified to give instruction in one or other of the branches mentioned in (Art. 1.)

ART. 8. Any person giving primary instruction without being qualified, or in

* This final appeal is to the Minister for the Home Department. See (Art. 13,) of this Law.

violation of the 1st clause of (Art. 4,) shall for the first offense be punished with a fine of twenty-five and not exceeding fifty florins; for the second offense with a fine of fifty and not exceeding a hundred florins, and imprisonment for eight, and not exceeding fourteen days, cumulatively or separately; and for each subsequent offense with imprisonment for one month and not exceeding one year.

Any person giving primary instruction beyond the limits of his qualification, shall be liable to half the amount and duration of the above-mentioned punishments. Assistant teachers, temporarily placed at the head of a school, provided the temporary occupation does not last longer than six months, are excepted from these provisions—(Art. 463,) of the Penal Code, and (Art. 20,) of the Law of the 29th of June, 1854, (Staatsblad, No. 102,) are applicable to these provisions.

ART. 9. On every judgment of fine it shall be declared by the judge that, on failure of payment of the fine and costs by the offender within two months after having been summoned to pay, the penalty inflicted shall be changed into imprisonment for not more than fourteen days, if the fine exceeds fifty florins, and for not more than seven days if a fine not exceeding fifty florins has been imposed.

ART. 10. Except in the cases mentioned hereafter, the qualification to give primary instruction ceases for any person condemned by final sentence,—

a. for crime.

b. for theft, swindling, perjury, breach of trust or immoral conduct.

ART. 11. Any person having lost his qualification for giving primary instruction, can not recover it.

In the cases mentioned in the 7th clause of (Art. 22,) and in (Art. 39,) it can be granted again by Us.

ART. 12. For the education of teachers there shall be at least two Government training schools; and normal lessons shall be established in connection with some of the best primary schools by the authority of the Government.

The education of male and female teachers in the primary schools shall be promoted by State authority as much as possible.

ART. 13. From every decision taken by the States Deputies in virtue of this law, an appeal lies to Us.

ART. 14. The provisions of this law concerning male teachers are likewise applicable to female teachers, as far as it does not contain any exceptions for the latter.

ART. 15. This law is not applicable;—

a. To those who give instruction exclusively in one of the branches mentioned in the *classes* marked *i*, *n*, *o*, and *p*, of (Art. 1,) and to the schools destined for those purposes.

b. To military instructors and the instruction given by them to military men.

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

1. *Schools.*

ART. 16. In every commune, primary instruction shall be given in a certain number of schools, sufficient for the number and requirements of the population, and open to any children, without distinction of religious creed.

The instruction shall include at least the branches classed from *a*, to *i*, in (Art. 1.) Wherever any want exists of extension, such being practicable, all the branches classed from *k*, to *p*, in (Art. 1,) or one or more of them, shall be included in the instruction.

Two or more adjoining communes may, in conformity with (Art. 121,) of the Law of June 29, 1851, (Staatsblad, No. 85,) join in the establishment and maintenance of united schools.

ART. 17. The council of the commune, shall fix the number of schools. Its resolution shall be communicated to the States Deputies.

If the States Deputies think the number insufficient, they shall order an augmentation.

If it shall appear insufficient to Us, an augmentation may be ordered by Us.

The extension of instruction mentioned in the (2d clause of the last Article,) shall be established in the same way.

2. *Teachers.*

ART. 18. If the number of pupils in one school shall exceed seventy, the head-master shall be assisted by one apprentice teacher; in schools not exceeding one hundred, by one assistant teacher; exceeding one hundred and fifty, by one assistant and one apprentice. Beyond the latter number, he shall be assisted by one apprentice for fifty, and by one assistant for one hundred pupils respectively.

ART. 19. A yearly salary shall be assigned to every head master, besides a house rent free, with a garden, if possible.

In case no house rent free can be provided for him, he shall receive an equitable compensation for house rent.

In case of disagreement between the council of the commune, and the teacher with respect to the amount of such compensation, the question shall be decided by the States Deputies.

For every apprentice mentioned in the last article, an additional sum shall be granted to the head master.

To every assistant teacher a yearly salary shall be assigned.

The yearly salaries and additions shall be fixed by the council of the commune, subject to the approbation of the States Deputies.

The amount of the yearly salary for a head master shall be at least 400 florins; for an assistant teacher at least 200 florins. The amount of the additional sum shall be at least 25 florins.

ART. 20. In those communes where, on account of their large and scattered population, a greater number of schools shall be required than otherwise would be necessary, a head master or assistant teacher, whose yearly salary shall be at least 200 florins, may be placed at the head of those schools respectively, subject to the approbation of the States Deputies.

ART. 21. In order to be qualified for the appointment of head master or assistant teacher, the candidate is required to possess—

a. A certificate of capacity to give school instruction.

b. Testimonials of good moral conduct delivered by the council of administration of the commune or communes where the candidate has been living during the last two years.

ART. 22. The head masters shall be appointed by the council of the commune, from a list containing not less than three, nor more than six names, prepared by the burgomasters and councilors, in concert with the district school inspector, after a competitive examination conducted by the latter, or under his inspection, in presence of the burgomaster and councilors, or of a deputation from their body, and of the local committee for school affairs, or of a deputation

from that committee. The members of the council of the commune shall be invited to be present at the examination.

The assistant teachers shall be appointed by the council of the commune from a list containing three names prepared by the burgomaster and councilors, in concert with the head master and the district school inspector.

The head masters and assistant teachers may be suspended by the burgomaster and councilors, after consultation with the school inspector. The burgomaster and councilors shall give as soon as possible an account of their decision to the council of the commune.

The head masters and assistant teachers may be dismissed by the council of the commune on the requisition of the burgomaster and the councilors, and the district school inspector. Resignations must be made to the council of the commune directly.

If suspension or dismissal should be necessary, either according to the opinion of the local committee for school affairs, or of the district school inspector, and the common council delay or refuse to proceed thereto, such suspension or dismissal may be effected by the States Deputies.

Suspension shall never exceed a term of three months, and the salary may continue to be paid, or be partially or entirely withheld during suspension.

Those who are dismissed on account of scandalous conduct, or of propagation of doctrines inconsistent with morality, or tending to excite disobedience to the laws of the country, may be declared by the States Deputies to have lost their qualification to give instruction.

The appointment and dismissal of apprentice teachers is made by the head master, subject to the approbation of the district school inspector.

In cases of suspension, of dismissal, or of a vacancy in the place of head master or assistant teacher, the burgomaster and councilors shall provide for the temporary occupation of the vacant place; in the case of a head master, in concert with the district school inspector, and with the head master in the case of an assistant teacher. The place of head master shall be filled up within six months at least after becoming vacant.

ART. 23. The system of education in the schools, while imparting suitable and useful information, shall be made conducive to the development of the intellectual capacities of the children, and to their training in all Christian and social virtues.

The teacher shall abstain from teaching or permitting to be taught any thing inconsistent with the respect due to the religious opinions of dissenters. Religious instruction is left to the ecclesiastical communities. The school-rooms shall be at their disposal for that purpose out of school hours, for the benefit of children attending the school.

ART. 24. The head master and assistant teachers are not allowed to hold any office or employment otherwise than with the approbation of the States Deputies, after consultation with the burgomaster and councilors, and in communes of 3,000 inhabitants and upward, with the local committee for school affairs, and in other communes with the district school inspector. They are not allowed to carry on any business, to work at any trade, or to exercise any profession: this prohibition is applicable also to the members of the families of the head masters and assistant teachers, as far as relates to carrying on the prohibited occupation in their houses.

ART. 25. The head master and assistant teachers shall be entitled to a pension from Government in the following cases and under the conditions thereto annexed.

ART. 26. A right to a pension is acquired after receiving an honorable discharge on acquiring the age of sixty-five years, and completing the period of forty years' service.

A pension may likewise be granted to those who after ten years' service have become incapable of performing the duties of their calling on account either of mental or bodily infirmities, and have received an honorable discharge on such grounds.

The incapacity shall be established by the declaration of the district school inspector and of the States Deputies. In calculating the amount of the pension, such services only shall be taken into consideration as may have been performed as head master or as assistant master under this law, or previously to this law coming into operation, as teacher of a public school, being engaged in primary instruction.

Those who have not received an honorable discharge, forfeit their right to a pension.

ART. 27. The pension shall amount for each year's service to one-sixtieth part of the yearly salary which during the last twelve months previous to an honorable discharge may have served as a basis for the payment of the contributions mentioned in (Art. 28:) it shall not however in any case exceed two-thirds of such yearly salary.

ART. 28. As a contribution to the pension fund, the head masters and assistant teachers shall pay from the day on which this law comes into operation, two per cent. per annum, of the yearly salary annexed to their appointment. This contribution shall be collected on behalf of the State, at the charge of the officers of the commune, and accounted for to the public treasury.

ART. 29. Those communes in which any head masters or assistant teachers shall be pensioned by virtue of this law, shall make good to the Government a third part of the amount of such pensions.

ART. 30. The provisions of (Arts. 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 37, 40, and 41,) of the Law of 9th May, 1846, (Staatsblad, No. 24,) with the alterations enacted by the Law of 3d May, 1851, (Staatsblad, No. 49,) are applicable to pensions of head masters and assistant teachers.

3. *Support.*

ART. 31. Each commune shall provide for the charges of its primary instruction, as far as these charges are not imposed upon others, or shall not be provided for in any other manner.

ART. 32. These charges are:—

a. The yearly salary of the head masters and assistant teachers.

b. The additional remuneration on account of apprentice teachers.

c. The charges for the erection and maintenance, or for hire of school-buildings.

d. For providing and keeping in order the school furniture and school books, and for other school necessaries for the pupils.

e. For light and fire required for the school-rooms.

f. For the erection and maintenance, or for hire of dwelling-houses for the teachers.

g. Compensation to the head masters in lieu of a house rent free.

h. The contribution of the commune to the pension of the teachers.

i. The expenses of the local school committee.

ART. 33. To meet these charges a payment may be required from each child attending the school. Children supported by public charity, and such as, though not receiving relief, are unable to pay for their schooling, shall not be called upon for this payment.

The council of the commune shall provide as far as possible for the school attendance of children of parents receiving relief or in indigent circumstances.

ART. 34. The fixing of the amount of the school money, as well as any alteration of such amount, or the entire remission of it, shall be effected in conformity with (Arts. 232—236,) of the Law of 29th of June, 1851. (*Staatsblad*, No. 85.)

The collection shall be regulated by a local order, in conformity with the provisions of (Arts. 258—262,) of the same Law.

ART. 35. The school money shall be the same for all children of the same class in any school.

For two or more children of the same family, attending school at the same time, the rate of payment may be reduced.

ART. 36. If, after inquiry by the States Deputies, and after the report thereon of the States of the province, We shall judge any commune to be too heavily charged by the expenditure requisite for suitable establishments of primary instruction, such portion thereof as shall continue to be charged upon the commune shall be fixed by Us, and the deficiency shall be provided for by the province, and by the Government, in the proportion of one moiety by each.

III. PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

ART. 37. For conducting education in private schools, or in private houses, the following qualifications are required:

a. A Certificate of Capacity.

b. Testimonials of the same description as those mentioned in (Art. 21,) Letter *c.*

c. A Certificate that both these documents have been seen and found in due order by the burgomaster and councilors of the commune where the instruction is to be given.

ART. 38. The burgomaster and councilors shall give their decision respecting the issue of the certificate, mentioned under Letter *c*, in (Article 37,) within four weeks, to be counted from the date of the claim of such certificate. An appeal may be made from such decision to the States Deputies, or an appeal be made if no decision shall have been communicated to the parties interested within the above mentioned period. After rejection of appeal by the States Deputies, or in default of notice of their decision within six weeks to the parties interested, an appeal may be made to Us.

ART. 39. Teachers who, in conducting education in private schools, or in private houses, shall propagate doctrines inconsistent with morality, or tending to excite disobedience to the laws of the country, may, on presentment by the burgomaster and councilors, by the local school committee, or by the district school inspector, be declared by the States Deputies to have lost their qualification to give instruction.

This provision is also applicable to such teachers as make themselves obnoxious to the charge of scandalous conduct.

IV. AUTHORIZATION TO ESTABLISH OR TEACH PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

ART. 40. Certificates of capacity for conducting education in private schools and private houses are to be obtained by passing examinations.

ART. 41. An opportunity for such examination shall be afforded twice a year in each province by a committee, composed of the superintendent and four school inspectors.

This board shall hold its sittings in the principal town of the province. It shall be competent to attach to itself assessors, having special acquirements.

The appointment of the school inspectors and the fixing of the time of meeting of the boards, shall be settled by Our Minister of the Interior.

The examinations shall be held in public, except those of female teachers.

ART. 42. The time when the examinations are to take place, shall be made known to the public by advertisement.

Any person desiring to present himself for examination, shall apply in due time to the school inspector of the district where he resides, or where, if a stranger, he intends to establish himself, with notice of the description of certificate which he requires.

He must further produce one or more testimonials of his good moral conduct, and his certificate of birth.

The time and the place of the examination will be communicated to him by the school inspector.

He shall present himself for examination in the province where he resides, or, if a stranger, in that where he intends to establish himself.

ART. 43. In order to be admitted for examination the candidate must have attained the proper age; this is fixed at eighteen years for private and assistant teachers of either sex, at twenty-three years for head masters and head mistresses.

ART. 44. Candidates for examination for the purpose of obtaining a certificate of capacity as assistant teachers of either sex, are required:—

To read and write well.

To have an adequate knowledge of analysis, of the rules of spelling, and of the elements of the Dutch language.

To be able to express themselves with correctness and ease, as well orally as in writing.

To know the principles of grammar.

To know arithmetic, in whole numbers as well as in vulgar and decimal fractions, applied to money, weights, and measures; in addition to this, the male candidates are required to know the system of logarithms.

To be acquainted with geography and history.

To know the principles of natural philosophy.

To know the theory of singing.

To know the principles of teaching and education.

ART. 45. Candidates for examination for the purpose of obtaining certificates of capacity as head mistresses are required to possess attainments of the same description as those required of assistant teachers, but more advanced, and with application to their profession as head mistresses.

ART. 46. Candidates for examination for the purpose of obtaining certificates of capacity as head masters are required to possess attainments of the same description as those required from assistant teachers, but more advanced, comprehensive, and developed.

ART. 47. Candidates desiring to obtain, or having already obtained, one of the certificates mentioned in the last three articles, may, at their request, be further examined in one or more of the subjects marked from *k*, to *p*, in (Art. 1.)

ART. 48. The examination for obtaining a certificate of capacity as private teacher, of either sex, embraces one or more of the subjects mentioned in (Art. 1.)

For that purpose, equal attainments at least are required as from assistant teachers.

ART. 49. When the examination has been passed to the satisfaction of the board, they shall deliver the certificate required to the candidate.

The subject or subjects of more comprehensive primary instruction, in which the candidate may have passed his examination successfully, shall be recorded in the certificate of capacity to give school instruction.

In like manner a record shall be made, in certificates of capacity to give private lessons, of any other subjects of primary instruction in which the examination has been successfully passed.

ART. 50. Certificates of capacity shall be delivered on payment of ten florins for those of head masters or head mistresses; five florins for those of assistant teachers of either sex; five florins for those of private teachers, either male or female, in more than one subject; three florins for those of a private teacher, either male or female, in one subject only.

For the first record (as mentioned in clauses 2 and 3 of the preceding Art.,) in the certificate of school instruction, three florins shall be paid, and in that for private tuition in one subject, only two florins. The first record in the certificate for private tuition in more than one subject, and any further records in general, shall be made gratuitously.

The above mentioned sums are to provide for the expenses of the meetings of the boards, including the remuneration to the assessors. The surplus shall be paid over to the public treasury.

ART. 51. Certificates of capacity shall be valid for the whole kingdom.

Certificates for school instruction shall be also valid for private tuition.

Certificates for private tuition also qualify the holders to give instruction in a school, in one or more of the subjects marked *b*, *c*, and from *i*, to *p*, inclusive, (Art. 1.)

Certificates of capacity as head master or head mistress qualify them equally to hold the place of assistant teachers.

In addition to the cases provided for in (Art. 20,) the certificate of assistant teachers may, under the conditions to be prescribed by Us, qualify the holder to be at the head of a public school.

V. SUPERINTENDENCE.

ART. 52. The superintendence of education, subject to the supervision of Our Minister of the Interior, is conferred upon—

a. Local committees for school affairs.

b. District school inspectors.

c. Provincial superintendents.

ART. 53. There shall be in every commune a committee for school affairs.

In communes united by virtue of the 3d clause of (Art. 16,) for the purposes of the erection and maintenance of joint schools, there shall be a joint committee.

ART. 54. In communes of less than 3,000 inhabitants, the duties of the local committee for school affairs are transferred to the burgomaster and councilors.

In other communes the committees shall be appointed by the council of the commune.

The office of member of the committee may be held with that of member of the council of the commune.

ART. 55. Every province shall be divided by Us into school districts.

Every district shall be placed under the charge of a school inspector.

In case of decease, sickness, or absence of the school inspector, provision may be made for the performance of his duties by Our Minister of the Interior.

ART. 56. The school inspector shall be appointed by Us for the period of six years.

On the expiration of their period of service, they may be re-appointed.

They may be dismissed at any time by Us.

ART. 57. The school inspectors shall receive a certain sum from the public treasury, as compensation for their traveling expenses and maintenance.

ART. 58. In each province there shall be one superintendent (provincial inspector.)

The superintendents shall be appointed by Us. They may be dismissed at any time by Us.

They shall receive from the public treasury a yearly salary, and compensation for their traveling expenses and maintenance.

ART. 59. The superintendents shall be summoned to meet together once a year, by Our Minister of the Interior, for the purpose of deliberating upon and promoting, under his authority, the general interests of primary instruction.

ART. 60. The superintendents shall hold no office or employment without Our permission.

ART. 61. The members of the local committees for school affairs, the school inspectors, and the superintendents, before entering upon their duties, shall take an oath, or promise upon their honor, to discharge them duly and faithfully.

The oath shall be administered, or the promise accepted, in the case of members of the local committees, in communes of 3,000 inhabitants and upward, by the burgomaster; in other communes by the judge of the canton where they are living; in the case of school inspectors, by Our Commissary in the province, and in the case of superintendents, by Our Minister of the Interior.

ART. 62. The members of the local committees, the school inspectors, and the superintendents are empowered to report on any transgressions against this law, or against the further prescriptions concerning primary instruction.

ART. 63. All schools where primary instruction is given, whether public or private, shall be open at all times to the members of the local committee for school affairs, to the district school inspector, and to the superintendent of the province.

The teachers are bound to give them any information that may be required concerning the school and the instruction.

Default in this respect shall be punished with a fine of twenty-five florins, or imprisonment for three days, and for every fresh offense with both penalties

united. (Article 463,) of the Penal Code, and (Article 20,) of the Law of 29th June, 1854, (Staatsblad, No. 102,) are applicable to these cases.

ART. 64. The local committees for school affairs shall keep a careful watch over all schools in the commune where primary instruction is given. They shall visit them at least twice a year, either collectively, or by a deputation from their body. They shall take care that the regulations concerning primary instruction be strictly observed. They shall keep a record of the persons engaged in teaching, of the number of pupils, and of the state of education. They shall deliver to the council of the commune, before the 1st of March in every year, a report, with their remarks thereon, of the state of education in the commune, and they shall send a copy of this report to the district school inspector. They shall give notice to him of any considerable changes that may have taken place in the state of the schools; they shall furnish him and the provincial superintendent with all the information which they may each require; they shall afford assistance to such teachers as may ask for their advice, aid, or coöperation, and they shall make it their business to promote heartily the prosperity of education.

ART. 65. The school inspectors shall take care to be constantly and fully acquainted with the state of school affairs in their district. They shall visit at least twice a year all schools within it where primary instruction is given, and keep an accurate record of such visits. They shall take care that the regulations concerning primary instruction be strictly observed. They shall communicate with the local committees for school affairs, and with the councils of the commune; they shall lay before them, as well as the provincial superintendent, such proposals as they may think conducive to the interests of education. They shall give notice to the said superintendent of any thing which in visiting the schools has appeared to them of any importance, and provide him with all such information as he may require. They shall deliver to the superintendent, before the 1st of May in every year, a report on the state of education in their district, with their remarks thereon, and send a copy thereof to the States Deputies. They shall heartily support the interests of the teachers, promote their meetings, and be present at them, as far as possible.

ART. 66. The school inspectors shall have admittance to the meetings of all local committees for school affairs in their district, and they shall have consultative voice in such meetings.

ART. 67. The superintendents shall endeavor, both by visiting the schools and by oral and written communications with the local committees for school affairs, and with the councils of the communes, to promote the improvement and prosperity of the schools. They shall advise our Minister of the Interior on any questions respecting which their opinions may be asked. They shall prepare from the annual reports of the school inspectors a report, accompanied with their remarks, concerning the state of education in their province, and send this report, before the 1st of July in each year, to Our above mentioned Minister.

VI. PROVISIONS.

ART. 68. Teachers of either sex, both public and private, and tutors and governesses who at the time of this law coming into operation shall be lawfully engaged in such callings, require no re-appointment nor acknowledgment to continue therein.

After that time, any certificates of general admission of the 1st and 2d rank obtained previously, shall be considered as giving the same rights as certificates

of capacity as assistant teacher; those of school mistresses as giving the same rights as certificates of capacity as head mistress: but only within the province or commune where such certificates have been delivered. Tutors and governesses who after that time desire to settle as such in another commune, are obliged to submit previously to the examination mentioned in (Art. 18.)

Head masters of private schools of the 2d class in existence at the time of this law coming into operation, who hold at least the 2d rank, may in case of transfer of such schools by the council of the commune, in concert with the district school inspector, as public primary schools, be appointed as head masters of such institutions.

The provisions of (Art. 22,) concerning the proposal of names and the competitive examination, are not applicable to these cases.

ART. 69. The yearly salaries of all public head masters and head mistresses in actual service at the time of this law coming into operation shall, as long as they continue to hold their places, in no case be fixed at an amount less than the income which they have been receiving yearly, at an average, during the five years next preceding the above date; or, for those who have been in service for a shorter time, during such shorter period.

ART. 70. To carry into effect the provisions respecting the fixing of the number of schools in proportion to the population and their wants, and the extension of the instruction (Arts. 16 and 17,) the assistance in teaching to be afforded to the head master (Art. 18,) the yearly salaries and other emoluments of the head masters and assistant teachers, and the additional remuneration on account of the apprentice teachers (Arts. 19 and 20,) and the expenses of education (Arts. 31—35,)—a term of three years at most is allowed, reckoning from the date of this law coming into operation.

During such term the yearly salaries and contributions of the provinces and of the Government shall be paid to the head masters and head mistresses and to the communes at the rate of their receipts for the time being, at the date of this law coming into operation.

ART. 71. Private schools in receipt of assistance, at the date of this law coming into operation, from the commune or from the province, and not fulfilling the condition of the 4th clause of (Art. 3,) can not continue to receive such assistance for a period exceeding one year from the date first above mentioned.

ART. 72. Pending a settlement by law of the system of secondary instruction, the provisions of this law are equally applicable to all that concerns the more advanced instruction in modern languages, and in mathematical and physical science.

In order to be admitted for examination for the purpose of obtaining a certificate of capacity in one or more of these subjects, the attainment of 18 years at least is required. A single payment of five florins shall be made for the certificate.

ART. 73. This law shall come into operation on the 1st of January, 1858.

Saving the provisions of (Art. 70,) all existing general provincial and local regulations concerning primary instruction will then be abolished; the provincial committees of education, local committees for school affairs, and committees for local superintendence of schools, dissolved; the district school inspectors dismissed; and the system of superintendence of schools, according to the present law, substituted for them.

REMARKS ON THE SCHOOL LEGISLATION OF 1857.

BY AN ENGLISH SCHOOL INSPECTOR.

Mr. Arnold, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, and deputed, by the Royal Commissioners on the state of Popular Education in England, to examine into and report on the state of Popular Education in France, Switzerland and Holland in 1859, makes the following remarks on the Law of 1857:

What could have been the inducement to the Dutch Government to alter a legislation which worked so well? Why, when the law of 1806 was there, should the Chambers have been called upon to vote the law of 1857? I proceed to reply very briefly to these questions.

In the first place, in 1848, Holland had the disease from which it seems that, since the French Revolution, no constitutional state on the Continent can escape;—it wrote down its constitution. The Constitution of 1848 proclaimed liberty of instruction. The legislation of 1806 had fettered this liberty, by requiring the private teacher to obtain a special authorization before he might open school. It was necessary to bring school-legislation on this point into harmony with the new Constitution.

It was asserted, too, that the body of schoolmasters, satisfactory as was their position in general, were yet left too dependent on the will of the local municipality for the amount of their salaries; that there were many cases in which these were quite insufficient; and that it was desirable to establish by law a rate of salary below which local parsimony might not descend.

It was said, also, that the legislation of 1806 had not determined with sufficient strictness the obligation of communes to provide schools, and that in some quarters popular education was in consequence suffering. Returns were quoted to show that the attendance of children in the Dutch schools, satisfactory as compared with that which many countries could boast, was yet unsatisfactory as compared with that which Holland could boast formerly. In 1835 the proportion of the inhabitants of Holland in school was 1 to 8·3; in 1848, when it reached its highest point, it was 1 to 7·78; but in January, 1854, it had fallen to 1 to 9·35, and in July of the same year yet lower, to 1 to 9·83. The number of children attending no school, estimated at but 21,000 for 1852, was estimated at 38,000 for 1855. For Holland, this was a suffering state of popular education. Many desired to try whether legislation could not amend it.

Yet, after all, these were light grievances to allege against a law which had in general worked admirably. The special authorization required for private teachers had never in Holland been felt as a serious grievance, because in Holland it was almost always accorded or refused with fairness. The Dutch schoolmaster had, in general, reason rather for satisfaction than for complaint. The diffusion of instruction among the Dutch people was such as might inspire their rulers with thankfulness rather than disquietude.

Another, a graver embarrassment, placed the legislation of 1806 in question. It arose out of those very provisions of the law which had been supposed essentially to characterize it, and which observers had the most applauded. It arose out of the imposition on the schools of a non-denominational character.

M. Cousin's convictions led him to disapprove an instruction for the people which was either purely secular or not directly and dogmatically religious; but he had not been able to refuse his testimony to the success of the non-dogmatic

instruction of the primary schools of Holland. He had seen, he declared, in the great schools of Amsterdam, of Rotterdam, of the Hague, Jews, Catholics and Protestants, seated side by side on the same benches, troubled by no religious animosity, receiving harmoniously a common instruction. But what struck him most was, that this instruction seemed to him "penetrated with the spirit of Christianity, though not with the spirit of sect;" that it formed men "sincerely religious and in general moral."

This was high praise from such a quarter, and it tended to dissipate the objections most formidable to such a school system as the Dutch. If, in fact, religious training did not suffer in neutral or non-denominational schools, these schools were inevitably to be preferred to all others; for the advantages of their neutrality no one disputes, and the one supposed *dis*advantage of their neutrality was shown not to exist. Precisely on this plea that, while the Dutch schools were unsectarian, they were yet truly Christian, the venerable M. Van den Ende upheld the system which he had founded. "Yes," he said to M. Cousin in 1836, "primary schools ought to be Christian, but neither Protestant nor Catholic. They ought to belong to no one communion in particular, and to teach no positive dogma. Yes, you are right; the school ought to be Christian, the school must be Christian. Toleration is not indifference. I can not approve that the schoolmaster should give any dogmatic religious instruction; such instruction should be given by the ministers of the different denominations, and out of school. I allow that the schoolmaster may in some cases have the catechism said; but even this is not without its inconveniences. Remember that you are in Holland, where the Christian spirit is very widely spread among the people."

It escaped, I think, M. Van den Ende, it escaped, I think, M. Cousin, that it would have been more strictly to the purpose to say:—"You are in Holland, where the *Protestant* spirit is very widely spread among the people." I think it escaped them, that the religious teaching of the Dutch public schools, a sincere, a substantial religious teaching no doubt, was at the same time substantially a *Protestant* teaching. I think it escaped them, that this Protestant teaching passed without raising difficulties in the Dutch schools, because the religious spirit of the Dutch people in general was a decidedly Protestant spirit, which the Protestant teaching of the public schools of course did not offend. But, in that case, the triumph of the neutral school in Holland was more apparent than real. The Dutch system had not, in that case, yet solved the difficult problem of uniting in a religious instruction genuine Christian teaching with absolute exclusion of dogma.

Events have singularly proved this In 1848 all religious denominations in Holland were placed by law on a perfect equality. Protestantism lost its exclusive predominance. What was the first step taken by the Catholics in the assertion of their equal rights? It was to claim an exact and literal observance of the law of 1806. "The word *Christian* in the law of 1806," said the Catholics, "had become in practice merely another word for *Protestant;* if possible, banish the word *Christian* altogether, for of that word, in a neutral school, partisans are sure to take sectarian advantage; but, even if the word remains, the law clearly proscribes all dogmatic teaching, clearly limits the Christianity to be taught to morality only; execute the law; forbid the teacher to give any dogmatic religious instruction whatever; banish from the school the Bible, which contains dogma as well as moral precepts." The law was clearly on the side of the Catholics, and they succeeded in having it strictly put in force. M. Van den Ende's own words to M. Cousin, which I have quoted above, show that, probably, the Catholics had ground for complaint, show that, probably, the teacher sometimes actually broke the law by taking part in teaching dogmatic formularies. But even though formularies be excluded, it is hard to impress a Protestant or Catholic stamp on the religious instruction if a school admits any religious instruction at all.

No sooner was the law of 1806 put strictly in force, no sooner did schools of Holland become really non-denominational, than the hi tants began to cry out against them. They discovered that the law was vicious in principle. They discovered that the public schools, w law had founded, were "godless schools," were "centers of irreligion morality."

The dissatisfaction of this formidable party was the real cause which made the revision of the law of 1806 inevitable. Either the government, while introducing into the school-law of Holland the lesser modifications necessitated by the Constitution of 1848 or by other causes, must obtain from the Chambers a fresh sanction for the important principle of the neutral school, or this principle must be publicly renounced by it. The law of 1857 raised the question.

Never, perhaps, has it been better discussed than in the debates which followed the introduction of that law into the Dutch Chambers. It does honor to Holland that she should have for her representatives men capable of debating this grave question of religious education so admirably. I greatly doubt whether any other parliamentary assembly in the world could have displayed, in treating it, so much knowledge, so much intelligence, so much moderation. These debates prove the truth of what I have before said, that in the upper classes of no country is the education for public affairs so serious or so universal as in Holland; they prove, too, that nowhere does the best thought and information of these classes so well succeed in finding its way into the legislature. A most interesting account* of the discussion has been published in the French language, by M. de Laveleye, a Belgian, and a warm partisan of the cause of neutral schools; I strongly recommend the study of his book to all who desire to see the question of religious education fully debated. My space permits me here only to indicate, with the utmost brevity, the parties on each side in this discussion in the Dutch Chambers, and its issue.

Against the neutral school the high Protestant party stood alone; but its strength, though unaided, was great. This party is at the same time the great conservative party of Holland; it was strong by its wealth, by its respectability, by its long preponderance, by the avowed favor of the King. It was strongest of all, perhaps, by the character of its leader, M. Groen van Prinsterer, a man of deep religious convictions, of fervent eloquence, and of pure and noble character. As a pamphleteer and as an orator, M. Groen van Prinsterer attacked the neutral school with equal power. "No education without religion!" he exclaimed, "and no religion except in connection with some actual religious communion! else you fall into a vague deism, which is but the first step toward atheism and immorality."

If the opponents of the non-denominational school were one, its supporters were many. First of all stood the Roman Catholics; insisting, as in States where they are not in power they always insist, that the State which can not be of their own religion, shall be of no religion at all; that it shall be perfectly neutral between the various sects; that no other sect, at any rate, shall have the benefit of that State-connection which here it can not itself obtain, but which, when it can obtain it, it has never refused. Next came the Jews and dissenters; accustomed to use the public schools, desiring to make them even more neutral rather than less neutral; apprehensive that of public schools, allotted separately to denominations, their own share might be small. Next came an important section of the Protestant party, the Protestants of the New School, as they are called, who have of late years made much progress, and whose stronghold is in the University of Groningen; who take their theology from the German rationalists, and, while they declare themselves sincerely Christian, incline, in their own words, "to consider Christianity rather by its moral side and its civilizing effect, than by its dogmatic side and its regenerating effect." For these persons, the general character of the religious teaching of the Dutch schools under the law of 1806, the "Christianity common to all sects" taught in them, was precisely what they desired. Finally, the neutral schools were upheld by the whole liberal party, bent in Holland, as elsewhere, to apply, on every possible occasion, their favorite principle of the radical separation of Church and State; bent to exclude religion altogether from schools which belong to the State, because with religion, they said, the State ought to have no concern whatever.

The party which really triumphed was that of the Protestants of the New School. They owed this triumph less to their own numbers and ability, than to the conformity of their views with the language of the legislation of 1806.

* *sur l'Enseignement primaire dans les Chambres Hollandaises*, par Emile de Laveleye, 1858.

That legislation was dear, and justly dear, to the people of Holland; a school-system had grown up under it of which they might well be proud; they had not generally experienced any serious inconvenience from it. The new law, therefore, while it forbade, more distinctly than the old law, the schoolmaster to take part in dogmatic religious teaching, while it expressly abandoned religious instruction to the ministers of the different religious communions, while it abstained from proclaiming, like the old law, a desire that the dogmatic religious teaching of the young, though not given in the public school, might yet not be neglected,—nevertheless still used, like the old law, the word *Christian*. It still declared that the object of primary education was "to develope the reason of the young, and to train them to the exercise of all *Christian* and social virtues." This retention of the word *Christian* gave great offense to many members of the majority. It gave offense to the Liberals, because, they said, this word was "in evident opposition with the purely lay character of the State; for the State, as such, has no religion." Yet the Liberals accepted the new law as a compromise, and because, after all, it still repelled the introduction of the denominational school. But the Catholics were less pliant. To the last they insisted on excluding the word *Christian*, because in practice, they said, this word signified *Protestant;* and most of them voted against the law, because this word was retained. The law passed, however, and by a large majority.

Popular instruction in Holland is, therefore, still Christian. But it is Christian in a sense so large, so wide, from which everything distinctive and dogmatic is so rigorously excluded, that it might as well, perhaps, have rested satisfied with calling itself moral. Those who gave it the name of Christian were careful to announce that by Christianity they meant "all those ideas which purify the soul by elevating it, and which prepare the union of citizens in a common sentiment of mutual good will;" not "those theological subtleties which stifle the natural affections, and perpetuate divisions among members of one commonwealth." They announced that the Christianity of the law and of the State was "a social or lay Christianity, gradually transforming society after the model of ideal justice;" not "a dogmatic Christianity, the affair of the individual and the Church." They announced that this Christianity did not even exclude the Jew; for "the Jew himself will admit that the virtues enjoined by the Old Testament are not in opposition with the word of Christ considered as a sage and a philosopher." The Jews, on their part, announced that this Christianity they accepted. "In a moral point of view," said M. Godefroi, a Jew deputy from Amsterdam, "I believe and hope that there is no member of this Chamber, be he who he may, who is not a Christian. The word Christian, in this sense, I can accept with a safe conscience."

The Jews might be satisfied, but the orthodox Protestants were not. In a speech of remarkable energy, and which produced a deep impression upon the country, M. Groen van Prinsterer made a final effort against the new law. "If this law passes," he cried, "Christianity itself is henceforth only a sect, and in the sphere of government its name must never more be pronounced. We shall have not only the *ne plus ultra* of the separation of Church and State, but we shall have the separation of State and religion." "But the Constitution," retorted M. Groen's adversaries, "but the Constitution is on our side!" "If the Constitution," replied M. Groen, "makes the irreligious school a necessity, revise the Constitution!" When the law passed, he resigned his seat in the Chamber and retired into private life.

It is too soon yet to pronounce on the working of the law of 1857, for it has been in operation but two years. There seems at first sight no reason why the religious instruction of the Dutch schools should not follow the same course under the law of 1857 as under the law of 1806, for both laws regulate this instruction in nearly the same words. But the question of distinctive religious teaching has been raised; the strict execution of the letter of the law has been enforced; the orthodox Protestants have been made to see that, under that law, a religious instruction, such as they wished, could be given only whilst their adversaries slumbered—could be withheld the moment their adversaries awoke. The able and experienced inspector who conducted me round the schools of Utrecht, M. van Hoijtema, in pointing out to me a private elementary school, remarked that such schools had a much greater importance in Holland now

than a few years ago. I asked him the reason of this; he replied that in the large towns, at any rate, there was an increasing dissatisfaction with the inadequate religious instruction of the public schools, an increasing demand for schools where a real definite religious instruction was given. He added that this was a grave state of things; that in his opinion it was very undesirable that the schools of the State, with their superior means of efficiency, should not retain the education of the people;* that Government would probably be driven to do something in order to try to remove the present objections to them.

In fact, it may perhaps be doubted, whether any body of public schools anywhere exists, satisfying at the same time the demands of parents for their children's genuine moral and religious training, and the demands of the partisans of a strict religious neutrality. Secular schools exist, but these do not satisfy the great majority of parents. Schools professing neutral religious teaching exist, but these do not satisfy rigid neutrals. They may profess to give "an instruction penetrated with Christianity, yet without any mixture of Christian dogma,"† but they have not yet succeeded in giving it. In America the prevalent religious tone of the country is the religious tone of Protestant Dissent, and this, secular as the American school-system may profess itself, becomes the religious tone of the public education of the country, without violence, without opposition. In England, the religious tone of the schools of the British and Foreign School Society is undoubtedly also the religious tone of Protestant Dissent; but in England Protestant Dissent is not all-pervading and supreme. The British schools, therefore, have to try to neutralize their religious tone, so far as they can do this without impairing its religious sincerity; and, precisely because they have to try to do this, precisely because they have to attempt this impossible feat, these excellent schools are not thoroughly succeeding. While they are too biblical for the secularist, they are yet far too latitudinarian for the orthodox. And not the orthodox only, but the great majority of mankind—the undevout, the indifferent, the sceptical—have a deep-seated feeling that religion ought to be blended with the instruction of their children, even though it is never blended with their own lives. They have a feeling equally deep-seated, that no religion has ever yet been impressively and effectively conveyed to ordinary minds except under the conditions of a dogmatic shape and positive formularies.

The State must not forget this in legislating for public education; if it does, it must expect its legislation to be a failure. The power which has to govern men, must not omit to take account of one of the most powerful motors of men's nature, their religious feeling. It is in vain to tell the State that it is of no religion; it is more true to say that the State is of the religion of all its citizens, without the fanaticism of any. It is most of the religion of the majority, in the sense that it justly establishes this the most widely. It deals with all, indeed, as an authority, not as a partisan; it deals with all lesser bodies, contained in itself, as possessing a higher reason than any one of them, (for if it has not this, what right has it to govern?) it allows no one religious body to persecute another; it allows none to be irrational at the public expense; it even reserves to itself the right of judging what religious differences are vital and important, and demand a separate establishment;—but it does not attempt to exclude religion from a sphere which naturally belongs to it; it does not command religion to forego, before it may enter this sphere, the modes of operation which are essential to it; it does not attempt to impose on the masses an electicism which may be possible for a few superior minds. It avails itself, to supply a regular known demand of common human nature, of a regular known machinery.

It is not, therefore, unreasonable to ask of those "Religions of the Future," which the present day so prodigally announces, that they will equip themselves with a substantial shape, with a worship, a ministry, and a flock, before we legislate for popular education in accordance with their exigencies. But, when

* In Belgium, where the number of children attending some school or other is pretty nearly the same as in Holland, but where, of that number, the proportion attending private, not public schools, is much greater, the instruction is incredibly inferior to that of Holland. See *Débats sur l'Enseignement primaire*, (the author of which is himself a Belgian,) p. 7.

† See the speech of the Minister of Justice, M. Van der Bruggen, *Débats sur l'Enseignement primaire, &c., p. 47.*

they have done this, their neutralism will be at an end, denominationalism will have made them prisoners; the denominationalism of Groningen or Tübingen, instead of that of Utrecht or Geneva.

The principal change made by the law of 1857 is the establishment of greater liberty of instruction. The certificates of morality and capacity are still demanded of every teacher, public or private; but the special authorization of the municipality, formerly necessary for every private teacher before he could open school, and not granted except with the district-inspector's sanction, is demanded no longer.* This relaxation makes the establishment of private schools more easy. The programme of primary instruction, and that of the certificate-examination of teachers, remain much the same as they were under the law of 1806. Primary instruction, strictly so called, is pronounced by the law of 1857 to comprehend reading, writing, arithmetic, the elements of geometry, of Dutch grammar, of geography, of history, of the natural sciences, and singing. This is a much fuller programme than the corresponding programme of France or Belgium. The certificate-examination is proportionately fuller also.

The new law expressly prescribes (Art. 31) that primary schools, in each commune, shall be at the commune's charge. The law of 1806 had contained no positive prescription on this point. The schools are to be in sufficient number, and the States' deputies and the supreme government have the right of judging whether in any commune they are in sufficient number or not, (Art. 17.) School-fees are to be exacted of those who can afford to pay them, but not of "children whose families are receiving public relief, or, though not receiving public relief, are unable to pay for their schooling," (Art. 33.) If the charge of its schools is too heavy for a commune, the province and the State aid it by a grant, of which each contributes half, (Art. 35.) The exact amount of charge to be supported by a commune, before it can receive aid, is not fixed by the Dutch law; neither is a machinery established for compelling the commune and the province to raise the school-funds required of them. In both these respects the French law is superior. But in the weakest point of the French law, in the establishment of a *minimum* for the teachers' salaries, the Dutch law is commendably liberal. The *minimum* of a schoolmaster's fixed salary, placed at £8 a year by the Belgian and by the French law, the Dutch law places at nearly £34, ($170.) I need not remind the reader that the sum actually received by a schoolmaster in Holland is much greater. An undermaster's salary is fixed at a minimum of 200 florins; one-half of the salary fixed for headmasters.

Under the law of 1857 the public schoolmaster is still appointed by competitive examination. The district-inspector retains his influence over this examination. After it has taken place, he and a select body of the municipality draw up a list of from three to six names, those of the candidates who have acquitted themselves best. From this list the entire body of the communal council makes its selection. The communal council may also dismiss the teacher, but it must first obtain the concurrence of the inspector. If the communal council refuse to pronounce a dismissal which the inspector thinks advisable, the States' deputies of the province may pronounce it upon the representation of this functionary, (Art. 22.)

The law fixes the legal staff of teachers to be allowed to public schools. When the number of scholars exceeds 70, the master is to have the aid of a pupil-teacher, (*kweekeling*, from *kweeken*, to foster;) when it exceeds 100, of an undermaster; when it exceeds 150, of an undermaster and pupil-teacher; for every 50 scholars above this last number he is allowed another pupil-teacher; for every 100 scholars another under undermaster, (Art. 18.) The head-master receives two guineas a year for each pupil-teacher.

The law of 1857, like that of 1806, has abstained from making education compulsory. But it gives legal sanction to a practice already long followed by many municipalities, and which I have noticed above; it enjoins the municipal council to "provide, as far as possible, for the attendance at school of all chil-

* A certificate from the municipality, to the effect that they have seen the private teacher's certificates of morality and capacity, and found them in regular form, is still required. But if the municipality refuse or delay the issue of such certificate, the teacher may appeal to the States' deputies and to the King.

dren whose parents are in the receipt of public relief." Great efforts had been made, in the debates on the clauses of the law, to procure a more decided recognition by the State of the principle of compulsory education. It was proposed at least to make the payment of the school-fee obligatory for each child of school-age, if the Chamber would not go so far as to make his actual attendance at school obligatory. This obligation of payment (*schoolgeld-pligtigheid*) had already, it was said, been enforced by the governments of three provinces, Groningen, Drenthe and Overyssel, with excellent effect.* The usual arguments for compulsory education were adduced—that other countries had successfully established it—that ignorance was making rapid strides for want of it—that in China, where it reigns, all the children can read and write. It was replied that compulsory education was altogether against the habits of the Dutch people. Even in the mitigated form of the *schoolgeld-pligtigheid*, a large majority of the Chamber refused to sanction it.

The new legislation organized inspection somewhat differently from the law of 1806. It retained the local school-commissions and the district-inspectors; but at the head of the inspection of each district it placed a salaried provincial inspector, (Art. 28.) It directed that these provincial inspectors should be assembled, once a year, under the presidency of the Minister for the Home Department, to deliberate on the general interests of primary instruction. The Minister for the Home Department, assisted by a Referendary, is the supreme authority for the government of education. Between the provincial inspectors and the Minister, the law of 1857 has omitted to place inspectors-general. M. de Laveleye, in general the warm admirer of the Dutch school-legislation, considers this omission most unfortunate.

The 16th article of the law declares that children are to be admitted into the communal school without distinction of creed. For the much-debated 23d article, the wording finally adopted was as follows:—

"Primary instruction, while it imparts the information necessary, is to tend to develope the reason of the young, and to train them to the exercise of all Christian and social virtues.

"The teacher shall abstain from teaching, doing, or permitting anything contrary to the respect due to the convictions of dissenters.

"Religious instruction is left to the different religious communions. The school-room may be put at their disposal for that purpose, for the benefit of children attending the school, out of school-hours."

STATISTICS OF SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION IN 1859.

Holland has (January, 1858) a population of 3,298,137 inhabitants. For her eleven provinces, she has 11 provincial inspectors and 92 district inspectors. In 1857, her public primary schools were 2,478 in number, with a staff of 2,409 principal masters, 1,587 undermasters, 642 pupil-teachers, 134 schoolmistresses and assistants. In the day and evening schools there were, on the 15th of January, 322,767 scholars. Of these schools 197 were, in 1857, inspected three times; 618, twice; 1,053, once. In 817 of them the instruction is reported as very good; in 1,236 as good; as middling in 367; in 55 as bad. There were, besides, 944 private schools, giving instruction to 83,562 scholars. There were 784 infant schools, receiving 49,873 young children. Boarding-schools, Sunday-schools and work-schools, with the pupils attending them, are not included in the totals above given.

The proportion of scholars to the population, not yet so satisfactory as in 1848, was nevertheless, in 1857, more satisfactory than in 1854; in January of the latter year, but 1 in every 9·35 inhabitants was in school; in the same month of 1857, 1 in every 8·11 inhabitants. But, in truth, the suffering state of popular education in Holland would be a flourishing state in most other countries. In the debates of 1857, one of the speakers, who complained that popular education in Holland was going back, cited, in proof of the justice of

* In Groningen the number of children attending school had arisen from 20,000 to 30,000, in consequence of the adoption in 1830, by the provincial government, of a regulation requiring the payment of the school-fee for every child of from 5 to 12 years of age, whether he attended school or not. See *Débats sur l'Enseignement primaire*, p. 57.

his complaint, returns showing the state of instruction of the conscripts of South Holland in 1856. In this least favored province, out of 6,086 young men drawn for the army, 669 could not read or write. Fortunate country, where such an extent of ignorance is matter of complaint! In the neighboring country of Belgium, in the same year, out of 6,617 conscripts in the province of Brabant, 2,254 could not read or write; out of 5,910 conscripts in the province of West Flanders, 2,088 were in the same condition; out of 7,192 in East Flanders, 3,153. And, while in East Flanders but 1,820 conscripts out of 7,192 could read, write and cipher correctly, in South Holland, in the worst educated of the Dutch provinces, no less than 5,268 out of 6,086 possessed this degree of acquirement.*

Such, in Holland, is the present excellent situation of primary instruction. In Prussia it may be even somewhat more widely diffused; but nowhere, probably, has it such thorough soundness and solidity. It is impossible to regard it without admiration.

NOTE ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The law of 1857 is to be completed by regulations reorganizing the normal schools of Holland; but these regulations have not yet appeared. Meanwhile the normal school of Haarlem is provisionally continued. It contained, when I visited it, 25 students. They are not boarded in the institution, but lodge in the town; this arrangement is undoubtedly faulty, and the new regulations will change it. The institution is entirely at the charge of the State, which allows 200 florins a-year for the maintenance of each student in it. Admission is eagerly sought for. The course lasts four years. The students attend lectures from 8 to 9 in the morning, and from 5½ to 7½ in the evening; the first-year students attend lectures in the afternoon also. But the mornings of all the students, the mornings and afternoons of students of the second, third and fourth year, are spent in teaching in the different schools of Haarlem. They are practiced in schools of all kinds; schools for the poor, schools for the middle class; schools (without Greek and Latin) for the rich. The children of the latter, at an age when in England they would probably be still at home, almost universally attend school in Holland. A school for the richer class of children is attached to the normal school, and belongs to the present director, M. Geerligs. The students commence in the poor schools, and go gradually upwards, finishing their practice in schools for the richer class, where the attainment required in the teacher is, of course, more considerable than in the others. In Holland this mode of training the future teacher, so as to fit him for any kind of primary school, is found convenient; the superior address and acquirement of the best Dutch teachers is probably to be attributed to it. It is possible that in other countries it might be found to have disadvantages. But, at any rate, the large part assigned in the Dutch system of training to the actual practice of teaching, is excellent. Our normal school authorities would do well to meditate on this great feature of the Haarlem course.

* *Débats sur l'Enseignement primaire*, p. 50.

V. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

THE Normal School in Pennsylvania is the growth of many years, and of various suggestions and plans. The first attempt was an offshoot from the Normal and Model school of the British and Foreign School Society in London—the Model School in Chester Street, Philadelphia, having been established "in order to qualify teachers for the sectional schools (of Philadelphia) and for schools in other parts of the State," under the direction and on the system of Joseph Lancaster, who was fresh from the mother school of the system in London. This Model School was in 1848 enlarged into a Normal School for female teachers for the Public Schools of the city.

In 1825, Walter R. Johnson, a native of Massachusetts, and at that date Principal of the Academy at Germantown, published a pamphlet of twenty-eight pages, entitled "*Observations on the improvement of Seminaries of Learning in the United States*," in which he urges the establishment of "Schools for Teachers" as the most direct way of improving the quality of American Education. The outline of the organization and studies of such an institution for Pennsylvania is given.* Mr. Johnson urged the same views and plans on the attention of a committee of the Legislature, in 1833.

In 1833, Rev. Dr. George Junkin, President of the Lafayette College, at Easton, in a letter to Mr. Samuel Breck, Chairman of the Joint Committee on Education of the Legislature, after discussing the project of a Manual Labor School at Harrisburg for pupils who proposed to become teachers—also of similar schools, without manual labor, as Normal Schools, in different parts of the State—recommends the engrafting on existing colleges of a course of instruction for teachers, with opportunities of daily observation and practice in a common school, composed of the children of the neighborhood. The same plan, substantially, was suggested by Rev. Chauncey Colton, President of the Bristol College, in a letter of the same date addressed to the same Committee.

In 1834, Samuel Breck, as Chairman of a Joint Committee of the two houses of the Legislature, urges the establishment in existing colleges and academies of a "Teachers' Course, and Model Schools," for the professional education of several hundred teachers each year. The Bill re-

* Barnard's "*American Journal of Education*," Vol. V., p. 789.

ported by the Committee provides for an appropriation of $8,000 a year for this purpose, under the direction of the Superintendent of Schools.*

In October, 1836, at a public meeting held in Philadelphia, called "to consider the condition and improvement of institutions of public instruction in Pennsylvania," Rev. Dr. Ludlow, Provost of the University of Pennsylvania, in the chair, the Rev. Gilbert Morgan, late President of the Western University, at Pittsburg, submitted a report in which a "*Plan for a Teachers' Seminary and for a Board of Public Instruction*" was fully and ably discussed. This report was printed and widely circulated through the State, besides being read to large public meetings called in Harrisburg, Pittsburg, and other places in Pennsylvania. The plan for a Seminary contemplated an independent institution, a faculty of five professors and teachers, a three years' course of study, with opportunities of practice in a large common school attached. The plan is avowedly copied, with modifications from the Teachers' Seminaries of Prussia and France, and the Seminary of Mr. Hall, at Andover, Mass.

In 1836, Thomas M. Burrowes, Secretary of State, and ex-officio Superintendent of Common Schools, in a report dated February 19th, urges upon the Legislature an appropriation of $10,000 for "the establishment of two institutions, one in each end of the State, under the care of two of the colleges now in operation, for the preparation of common school teachers." In a subsequent report, in 1837, Mr. Burrowes renews the recommendation, with a suggestion that "the institutions should not be attached to any of the colleges, but be placed under competent and disinterested supervision, and be kept apart from any other object or profession." In 1838, the Superintendent returns to the subject—"the want of more and better teachers is by far the greatest difficulty of the system. Without them it can not long retain the degree of public favor now possessed; and with them its capacity for usefulness will only be limited by the necessities of the rising generation." To supply this want, "he has come deliberately and unhesitatingly to the conclusion that the best mode is the establishment of separate Free State Institutions for the instruction of teachers"—abandoning the plan of Academic and Collegiate Departments for this purpose, as altogether inadequate. The separate institutions he denominates Practical Institutes, in which the Model Schools were to be composed of the most promising pupils admitted free and by merit from all parts of the State. For the establishment of two such Institutions he recommends an appropriation of $25,000. In the same year the Legislature authorized the printing of five thousand copies of Prof. Stowe's Report on Elementary Education in Prussia.

In 1838, the Trustees of Lafayette College, at Easton, under the lead of the President, Dr. Junkin, established a Model School for candidate

* "*Report of Joint Committee, &c.,*" Harrisburg, 1834. 52 pages. To this report is appended letters from Pres. Junkin, Pres. Colton, Hon. A. C. Flagg and Hon. J. A. Dix, of New York, Rev. B. O. Peers, of Kentucky, R. Vaux and W. R. Johnson, of Philadelphia, and Hon. S. P. Beers, of Connecticut. Rev. Mr. Peers, of Kentucky, suggested the holding of a National Convention on the subject.

teachers, and erected a building for its accommodation. Dr. Junkin delivered an address on the 4th of July (which is published in the "Educator" of that year) "in commemoration of the founding of the first Model School for the training of Primary School Teachers in Pennsylvania, and the first, as believed, in the United States, in connection with a Collegiate Institution."

In April, 1838, Pres. Junkin, Prof. Robert Cunningham,* and Prof. F. Schmidt, of Lafayette College, commenced the publication of the "Educator," issued every second week (alternating with a German paper, containing nearly the same matter,) and "devoted to the development of education in the largest sense—the drawing out and training the powers of body, mind, and heart to habits of systematic, upright and profitable action—but mainly to the interests of Common Schools." From the year 1838, and until August, 1839, the "Educator" labored faithfully and ably for the professional training of teachers—publishing in its columns many articles on the subject by its own editors, and republishing the opinions and arguments of others—Channing, Stowe, Mann, Barnard, A. H. Everett, &c., citing the experience of France, Prussia, and Switzerland on the subject. But its expenses were not sustained by an adequate subscription list, and the attempt to establish a Normal Class with a Model School in connection with Lafayette College having failed, Prof. Cunningham returned to Scotland to become Principal of the Normal Seminary of Glasgow, and the publication of the "Educator" was discontinued.

In 1839, Prof. Cunningham published a lecture read by him before the American Lyceum in 1838, on "*The principles of the Prussian system of Education applicable to the United States*," in which he developed at some length the plan of a Normal Seminary, after the model of those of Prussia and France, but modified to suit the habits of our people. The same views were presented by him in an address delivered at Belvidere, New Jersey, in November, 1838, but published and circulated in Pennsylvania, in 1839.

In 1839, Alexander Dallas Bache, President of the Girard College of Orphans, made a report of his observations and study of the schools and school systems of the principal countries of Europe in the years 1836–7–8, which was published under the title of "*Report on Education in Europe*," and which was read with great avidity by the principal educators of this country. In this document Pres. Bache devotes a chapter to the description of "Seminaries for the preparation of Teachers for Primary Schools" in Prussia, Holland, France, and Switzerland.

In 1840, Francis R. Shunk, ex-officio Superintendent of Common Schools, in his report to the Legislature, urges the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries "for supplying all our primary schools with an

* Prof. Cunningham was trained in the Parochial Schools and Universities of Scotland, and after serving as head master of George Watson's Hospital, established the High Street Institution, at Edinburgh, in which he aimed to incorporate the Common Real School into the ordinary Classical School of Scotland. This plan is described by Prof. Bache in his Report on Education in Europe.

adequate number of good teachers." And for this purpose he recommended that the State be divided into a convenient number of Normal School districts, not more than five, and that three commissioners be appointed from each district to collect information for organizing, governing, and conducting these seminaries. In the same year the Superintendent requested Prof. Lemuel Stevens, who was about to visit Europe, to communicate to him the results of his observations and inquiries concerning Common Schools, and the education of teachers for this class of Schools. In 1843, Prof. Stevens addressed a letter to the Superintendent, which is published in the report of Superintendent Charles McClure for 1844, in which he gives his views on the Normal Schools of Germany, and the principles to be regarded in the establishment of this class of institutions in this country, and especially in Pennsylvania. He advises the Superintendent to guard against an imperfect organization, and inadequate supply of teaching power in these Seminaries. "Every thing depends on making them separate and independent establishments with a careful provision for a thorough theoretical and practical preparation for all the duties of the Common School." Mr. McClure indorses the views of his predecessors on the necessity of making some provision for the education of teachers.

In 1849, Townsend Haines, Superintendent of Common Schools, urges the establishment of Normal Schools in each county, and a central institution of the same character for the whole State, and open only to the graduates of the county institutions.

In 1850, A. L. Russell, in his report as Superintendent, recommends a Seminary for teachers in each congressional district with Model Schools attached, under the supervision of county Superintendents. In 1851, he renews the suggestion, with the addition of one State institution for special instruction in the theory and practice of agriculture, and for general instruction in all the branches of a High School course; three hundred pupils to be taught and supported at the expense of the State, and bound to devote a certain period afterwards to the business of teaching in the Common Schools.

In 1853, F. W. Hughes, Superintendent, while acknowledging the force of the argument in favor of independent and continuous Normal Schools, recommends a modification of the plan, by opening courses of instruction for periods of three or four months of the year to teachers actually engaged in the schools, to attend during their vacations.

In 1854 and 1855, C. A. Black, Superintendent, "renews the recommendation so often made by his predecessors, for the establishment of schools for the perpetual training of teachers."

In 1856, Andrew G. Curtin, Superintendent, remarks "that the period has now arrived for legislative action on behalf of Normal Schools. They should embrace two departments—one for the improvement of the present teachers, and the other a regular Normal Department. By opening the first, the present generation of teachers may be vastly improved

in professional skill and efficiency; and the second will provide for a succession of teachers to meet the growing demands of the age and country."

In 1857, the same Superintendent returned to the subject with greater urgency, and the Legislature on the 20th of May, 1857, embodied his suggestions in an Act, drawn up by Thomas H. Burrowes, entitled "*An Act to provide for the due training of Teachers for the Common Schools.*"

This act inaugurates a large system of Normal Schools, and provides for a series of teachers' certificates which, if properly administered, will come nearer our ideal of this class of institutions than if organized exclusively under State control and supported by State funds. It aims to enlist and reward individual and associated effort and liberality, and brings to the test of State examination the results of such professional instruction as shall be imparted in these schools. It recognizes and gives currency to professional attainments and skill, no matter where educated and trained.

The Act of 1857 provides for the establishment of at least twelve Normal Schools, by dividing the State into twelve districts of nearly equal population and similar characteristics of occupation and language, each district to have not more than one school under the Act. The details for carrying it into effect will be best understood in the account which we propose to give of one or more of the institutes already established in pursuance of its provisions.

The essential requisites for securing professional training, and uniformity of aims and methods in obtaining the same are—1. Each school must have an area of not less than ten acres of ground, for the buildings, gardens, gymnastic and other physical exercises, &c. 2. One or more buildings, sufficient to furnish lodging, and refectory, class rooms, hall, library, and cabinets, for at least three hundred students. The hall must accommodate at least one thousand adults, and all the buildings must be arranged and constructed, as to light, heat, and ventilation, so as to secure the health and comfort of the occupants. 3. At least six Professors, of liberal education and known ability in their respective departments, viz.: Orthography, Reading, and Elocution—Penmanship, Drawing, and Book-keeping—Arithmetic and the higher Mathematics—Geography and History—the Grammar and Literature of the English language—the Theory and Practice of Teaching, and such other instructors in the Natural, Moral and Mental Sciences, and in Languages, as the grade and attendance may require. 4. One or more Model and Practicing Schools in connection with the Normal School. 5. Uniform conditions of admissions, and course of instruction, approved by a majority of the Principals of the several schools each year, at a meeting of which all shall be notified. 6. Examinations for graduation to be conducted and certificates of proficiency in the studies specified to be issued to graduates, by a Board of not less than three Principals, designated for this purpose by the State Superintendent of Common Schools. 7. State

diplomas, good all over the State can be granted by the Board of Principals only to those who have had at least two full annual terms of actual teaching after regular graduation, and certificates of good moral character and success signed by the Directors of the schools where employed, and countersigned by the County Superintendent in which the schools are located. 8. Examinations in higher branches than these specified in a first certificate can be asked, and the proficiency, if shown, can be certified by the Board of Principals. 9. Each Common School district (each town and city) within a Normal district can maintain one pupil, selected by open competitive examination, who shall manifest a desire and capacity for the profession of teaching. 10. The Act makes all necessary powers for the full execution of its various provisions, and for obtaining information respecting the condition and operations of the schools.

Under this Act three Normal Schools have gone into operation, viz.: One at Millersville, in the second district, with grounds, buildings, and apparatus, which cost up to 1863, $62,000; one at Edenboro, in the twelfth district, with an outfit of buildings, &c., which cost $28,000; and a third at Mansfield, in the fifth district, with buildings, &c., provided at an expense of $24,000. Each of these schools has received $10,000 from the State. The three had a total attendance in 1864 of over 800 pupils.

Among the direct and efficient agencies in the development of the professional training and improvement of teachers in Pennsylvania should be noticed the holding of Teachers' Institutes and the establishment of associations, town, county, and State-wise, for educational purposes—the monthly publication of the "*Pennsylvania School Journal*," by Hon. Thomas H. Burrowes, since July, 1852, each number crowded with valuable statistics, documents, discussions, and addresses relative to education—and the institution of the office of County Superintendent, in 1853. With this new administrative element acting in every district, and on almost every teacher and school, stimulating and directing individuals and associations, parents, committees, teachers, children, and the public generally, improvements could not fail to spring up in all directions. In a future number we hope to give an account of one or more of the State Normal Schools, and of the proceedings of the State Teachers' Association, with biographical sketches of several of the prominent teachers and educators of Pennsylvania.

VI. NORMAL SCHOOL

FOR

FEMALE TEACHERS IN THE CITY OF PHILADELPHIA.

In the Act "to provide for the education of children at the public expense within the city and county of Philadelphia," passed in 1818, it was made the duty of the Controllers, who were intrusted with the administration of the schools, "to establish a Model School, in order to qualify teachers for the sectional schools, and for schools in other parts of the state." One of the public schools, located in Chester street, was accordingly organized as a Model School, under the direction of Joseph Lancaster, whose system of school organization and instruction was introduced. This school was used to some extent, as a pattern after which to conduct the other schools, and as a school of practice to train the teachers, and to some extent the monitors of the other schools, up to 1836, when the system of Lancaster was modified so far as to substitute an older class of females, graduates of the school, as assistants, in the places of the monitors selected from the pupils themselves. From this date the school in Chester street did not differ materially from any other school of the same grade until 1848, when, on the solicitation of the present accomplished and devoted Principal, and the recommendation of a committee of the Controllers, it was re-organized as a Normal School, according to the present idea of such an institution.

The Normal School was opened on the 13th of January, 1848, by an Address from James J. Barclay, Esq., in which he gave a brief history of the public schools of Philadelphia, and of this new agency in the system, "which contemplates the thorough training of the female teachers in those branches of a good English education, and in such practical exercises, as will discipline and develop the mind, adorn and elevate the character, insure the best mode of imparting knowledge, and of instructing children in their studies, establish uniformity in teaching, prevent fruitless experiments, manifold mistakes, and irreparable loss of time, with all their sad consequences to teachers and pupils." In reference to this last point, the Principal, in his Report for 1850, observes:

"How wide the difference, in point of usefulness as well as happiness, between the teacher trained to a proper realization of her duty as an educator, conversant with the true principles of her art, with ability to apply them, and one with just knowledge sufficient to pass an examination and secure a situation; discovering, when too late, her deficiency, confined from day to day to the same round of unsuccessful exertion, discouraged by the consciousness of her incompetency, and humiliated by the irresistible conviction of her want of integrity, in continuing to occupy a place

for which every day's experience proves her unfit. And, if prompted by a sense of duty to her pupils, she attempts to remove her deficiences by study, her health yields to her over-taxed strength, and she is compelled to abandon a profession, which, but for the want of proper training before engaging in it, she would have ornamented, and the pursuit of which would have added to her happiness, instead of rendering her miserable."

The following account of the school is gathered from the Reports of the Principal, for 1849 and 1850.

NUMBER OF PUPILS.—The first term of the school was commenced February 1st, 1848, with one hundred and six pupils; since which time there have been admitted one hundred and fifty-five, exclusive of those admitted at the end of the last term; consequently, the whole number who have enjoyed the advantages of the school, is two hundred and sixty-one.

The following statement will exhibit the number belonging to the school at the beginning and end of each term, and also the admissions and withdrawals during the year:

Attending school August 27th, 1849,	143
Discontinued at the close of the term ending February 15th, 1850,	46
Remaining,	97
Admitted at the close of the term,	53
Attending school, February 18th, 1850,	150
Discontinued at the close of the term ending July 26th, 1850,	40
Remaining,	110
Admitted at the close of the term,	40
Attending school, September 2d, 1850,	150
Average number belonging to the school during the year,	135
Average daily attendance,	129

ADMISSION OF PUPILS.—Pupils are admitted twice a year, in February and July. After evidence of sufficient age (15 years) is presented, the whole test of the qualifications of candidates consists in determining their proficiency in the branches prescribed for examination. Previous to the last examination, the candidates were required to answer one set of questions orally, and one in writing; the oral examination being a guide in determining whether the written answers were given by the candidate herself, or through the aid of some one sitting near her; it being impracticable always to arrange them so as to prevent communication. The general correspondence between the results of the oral and written examination, proved the double examination to be unnecessary. Acting upon this conclusion, at the end of the last term, the examination in orthography, definition of words, English grammar, history of the United States, geography and arithmetic, was conducted entirely in writing.

The method of conducting the examinations, as modified, by omitting the oral part, is as follows:

Questions upon each subject are prepared by the teachers of the respective branches, and submitted to the Principal, from which he selects a sufficient number, to be used in conducting the examination.

To prevent any improper influence that might result from a knowledge of the names of the candidates, a ticket having a number upon it, is given to each; by which number the applicant is known during the examina-

tion; her name not being communicated, until after the decision is made as to her admission.

In determining the candidate's average of scholarship in any particular branch, the whole number of facts embraced in the answers to the questions is used as a denominator, and the number answered correctly as a numerator; and the part of 10 expressed by this fraction gives the average. Thus, if the number of facts in a branch is forty, and the candidate answers thirty-five correctly, the average is obtained by taking $\frac{35}{40}$ of 10, and is expressed by 8.75.

The several averages in each branch, being added together, and divided by the number of subjects of examination, the general average of each candidate is obtained. The lowest average of scholarship which shall entitle the candidate to admission is then determined upon. At the last examination, those having averages above 6 were considered qualified for admission.

In pursuing the plan of examination thus indicated, although some errors may occur, yet they can not be numerous or important. The method leaves no room for partiality, as the averages indicating the scholarship of the candidates must correspond with the written evidences, which are always preserved as vouchers for the accuracy of the results.

Notwithstanding the small number of pupils admitted to the Normal School, compared with the number of applicants, I am not aware of a single instance in which a controller, director, teacher or parent, was not satisfied with the propriety of the rejections, after having examined the written answers of the candidates. And, in every instance, I have found the teachers more surprised at the deficiency exhibited by their pupils, than disappointed that they were not admitted. The number of applicants, admissions and rejections, at each examination, has been as follows:

	Candidates.	Admitted.	Rejected.
At the organization of the school, . . .	156	106	50
Second examination, ...	56	40	16
Third "	67	35	32
Fourth "	58	27	31
Fifth "	100	53	47
Sixth "	79	40	39
Total, ...	516	301	215

The number of admissions being but little more than 58 per cent. of the applicants.

The lowest age required of candidates for admission is fifteen years; the average age of pupils admitted has been fifteen years and ten months.

Course of Instruction. In arranging the plan of instruction, a primary object is to keep the mind of the pupil constantly in contact with subjects immediately or incidentally connected with the great object of her training, and to habituate her to *think* in reference to communicating her thoughts to others. In accomplishing this, the pupil necessarily attains that mental discipline, essential to the formation of habits of exact investigation and quick discrimination, which enable her readily to comprehend and acquire the knowledge of a subject, as well as to illustrate it with perspicuity and clearness.

As the name imports, the Normal School is designed to be a pattern school; the instruction, therefore, in all its departments, from the most elementary to the highest, is adapted, as far as possible, to the methods of teaching which are intended shall be pursued by its pupils.

It is a well-known fact that all children of natural endowments possess an innate desire *to know;* the eager inquisitiveness of children is proverbial. Consequently, the conclusion is self-evident, that the business

of the elementary educator is to encourage this propensity. With this view, the method of instruction pursued in the Normal School excludes altogether routine recitations, with the text book before the teacher as a guide, and the pupils reciting from memory, that which they have learned merely as a lesson. No teacher uses a text book during the recitations; meeting the classes with a full knowledge of the subject, and a perfect acquaintance with the widest range of incidental facts which may present themselves in its discussion, she invites inquiry; and questioning becomes as much the business of the pupils as of the teacher.

At every stage of instruction, it is made a prominent object to imbue pupils with a just sense of the importance of their relations as teachers, and to cause them to realize, that the whole duty of a teacher does not consist in hearing lessons; but that her business is thoroughly to develop all the intellectual and moral powers, and awaken and call forth every talent that may be committed to her care.

Carefully watching the results of the training described, the pleasing conclusion presents itself to my mind, that, as the methods of teaching are good in the opinion of the pupils themselves, and as mechanical modes give place to systems adapted to the development of the faculties, so the interest of the pupils is awakened; illustrating the important fact that, whether in schools or communities, the interest excited in education is always in proportion as the system of instruction is good, and efficiently carried out.

Infuse into the minds of the pupils of our schools that spirit which prompts them to seek knowledge for the sake of itself, and they will reach forward from elements to principles, from lower to higher branches of study, until the mind's own food creates the desire for more. It excites that spirit which constantly cries "give"—the outbursting of that innate principle—the spur to mental acquirement—the *desire to know*.

STUDIES.—At the organization of the school, in the selection of subjects of instruction, next to imparting a thorough knowledge of the branches taught in the public schools, preference was given to those branches best calculated for mental discipline, in connection with their utility in the practical duties of the pupils in after life. All the subjects embraced in the original plan of the school are now taught in the regular exercises of each term. While the range of study is extended, so as to occupy the full period of the pupil's connection with the school, it is sufficiently limited, to enable all of ordinary industry and talents to complete it in the prescribed period, if the pupil is possessed of sufficient knowledge at the time of her admission.

Theory and Practice of Teaching.—Lectures on the Principles of Education; embracing mental, moral and physical education. Also, instruction in school government, and teaching the elementary branches, and practice in teaching.

Mathematics.—Review of elementary arithmetic, and instruction in higher arithmetic, algebra, geometry and elementary astronomy.

Grammar.—Review of English grammar, and instruction in etymology, rhetoric and elements of composition.

Reading.—Instruction in English literature, and the art of reading.

History.—Review of geography and history of the United States, and instruction in the history of America, history of England, and general history of the world.

Writing.—Instruction in plain and ornamental penmanship.

Drawing.—Instruction in linear drawing, exercises in drawing from models, and principles of perspective.

Music.—Instruction in the elements and practice of vocal music.

Miscellaneous.—Instruction in natural philosophy, chemistry and physiology, is imparted entirely by lectures and examinations, by the Principal. Instruction in the constitutions of the United States and Pennsylvania, is given by the Principal and teacher of history.

In arranging the subjects and course of instruction, the aim is to restrict them chiefly to such branches or subjects, as are essential to a complete fulfillment of the duties of a teacher, under whatever circumstances she may be placed; and not only in the instruction, but in every relation the pupil holds to the school, her future destination as a teacher is kept prominently in view.

A very important feature of the exercises, is the recitation of the pupils to each other; in which a free expression of opinion, in the way of criticism, is encouraged; the modes of illustration being suggested by the pupils themselves, to meet the particular cases under consideration. This leads to originality of thought, and the application of methods not attainable in any other way. Thus, from the very entrance of the pupil into the school, to the completion of her course of study, practice in teaching is blended with positive instruction; and the powers of the pupil to communicate her ideas to others, are successfully cultivated; while exactness in the use of language becomes habitual. The purpose of the school, being particularly to develop the talents of the pupils as instructors, after a prescribed course of instruction on any topic is indicated by the Principal or teacher of the class, the recitations are left to be carried on by the pupils themselves.

The method of instruction is founded upon strictly inductive principles;—always proceeding from the known to the unknown. In pursuing this course much time is required, and the patience and skill of the teacher are subjected to the severest test;—while mere routine teaching, or simply imparting positive instruction, so generally practiced because attended with less labor, is carefully avoided. In the application of the first method, the mind being necessarily the active *agent* in obtaining knowledge, is unfolded, while in the latter, by its being the passive *recipient*, it is liable to be overburdened and the memory *only* improved. If the positive knowledge acquired by the inductive method is ever lost, the habit of thinking *remains;* and the reasoning powers are developed and disciplined.

In inculcating general principles, the theories are reduced to practice; and the danger of forming theoretical teachers is thus avoided. By applying principles, under circumstances where error is sure to be pointed out, and corrected by the observation of class-mates and teachers, every lesson becomes an exercise of thought and reason.

Schools of Practice.—The schools of practice consist of a girls' grammar school with 230 pupils, and two teachers, female principal and assistant; and a boys' secondary school with 147 pupils, and two female teachers, a female principal and assistant, in the same building with the Normal students. At least three pupils of the Normal School are employed at one time, in teaching in each school. The period occupied by the pupil-teacher is about four weeks in the term.

The pupil-teachers give instruction, under the immediate direction of the principals of the schools of practice; whose duty it is to teach *with* them and *for* them;—to aid them by advice, suggestions and example;—in effect, to instruct the classes *through* them as *aids—not* as *substitutes*. To enable the principal to give her undivided attention to the inexperienced pupil-teacher on first taking charge of a class, those engaged in the school are changed at such intervals, as to leave two experienced teachers occupied in teaching at one time; and on the introduction of the third,

the principal remains with her, until she can manage the class alone; a new teacher is then substituted for the one having been longest in practice. Before placing a pupil in charge of a class, the principal of the school carefully informs her as to the particular duties connected with its instruction and management. If after a brief trial, the pupil-teacher is found deficient in ability, readily to adapt herself to the circumstances of her new position, she is immediately withdrawn, her deficiencies noted, and her instruction in the Normal School directed to their removal. The duty of assigning lessons is performed entirely by the principal; the pupils being previously examined, at the close of the exercise, upon the subject of recitation. Thus making them immediately responsible to her, for their progress in learning.

The successful management and instruction of the classes in the schools of practice, depend to a great extent upon the principals of these schools; and this success will be in proportion to the attention given to the minutiæ of the practical duties of the schools, with which all experienced teachers are familiar; guarding the pupil-teacher from falling into errors, instantly checking them when discovered, cultivating and bringing into exercise that tact required to arouse the dull, to keep in check the restless, to secure the attention of the indolent, and maintain a continued and uniform interest throughout the whole class while reciting.

The position of the principal thus occupied, is peculiar in its character;—requiring in a remarkable degree promptitude, patience and industry; her duty being not merely to *teach*, but to impart through others intellectual and moral instruction; to foster correct habits, and cultivate and bring into action the powers of both teachers and pupils, through the agency of the former. The character of these schools will therefore depend entirely upon the manner in which the principals perform their duties, whether they are really *schools of practice*, or mere *experimental* schools, in which the pupil-teachers are left to learn to correct errors, by first making them;—wasting their own time and that of their pupils, in attempts to *discover* methods, instead of putting them into *practice*.

In affording an opportunity to the Normal pupils to acquire practice in teaching and discipline, the question may arise, whether the pupils whom they teach have equal advantages with those taught entirely by permanent teachers. The success of any school, depends in a great measure upon the ability and tact of the principal in its *general management*. In a small school, where the instruction is all given by one teacher, but little qualification is necessary, besides ability to teach properly; but as the school becomes larger, the duties devolving upon its head are so far extended in the general management and discipline, as to render the ability to teach of comparatively little value, in the absence of tact in school government. Therefore, as an increase in the number of subordinate teachers becomes necessary, so, different qualifications are requisite on the part of the principal; and while aptness to teach is an indispensable qualification, it must be accompanied by ability to control, and bring into exercise the best powers of the assistant teachers, to insure the *effective* teaching of the whole school. In substituting for permanent assistants, pupil-teachers who remain in charge of the classes for a comparatively limited period, the tact of the principal, and her skill in school government, form so important an element in the success of the school, that no qualifications which the pupil-teachers may possess, can compensate for their absence.

Under corresponding circumstances, young teachers will be more thorough in their instruction, and accomplish more work than older ones: the novelty of their position, their desire to gain the approbation of those directing them, and of the pupils themselves; the great pleasure derived from bringing into practice qualifications they are conscious of possessing,

are incentives to exertion, which contribute largely to success. Again, the pupil-teachers are frequently found to communicate in a manner more *intelligible* to the pupils than those who are further removed by age; the difficulty of acquiring a knowledge of a particular subject, being forgotten by the older teacher, while not only the difficulty, but the proper means to overcome it, are yet fresh in the memory of the younger ones. The zeal and energy of the young teacher are imparted to her pupils; they exert themselves more than if under a teacher less their equal in age. There is more sympathy existing between the pupils and the young teachers; friendships are formed, a desire to please is engendered, and the discipline is maintained more by self-control than by forced obedience. The deep interest manifested by the pupil-teacher in the progress of her scholars, seldom fails to produce great exertion on the part of the latter, and instances are not unfrequent, where the teacher and pupils emulate each other, in their efforts to promote one another's happiness. If to all these, is added the watchful care of the principal, the results can not be other than satisfactory.

The pupil-teachers, before meeting their classes, are required carefully to study the lessons to be recited during the day, that they may add interest to the exercises, by imparting instruction on subjects incidental to the lesson. The confidence of the class is thereby gained; and finding that their instructor is not compelled to rely upon the text book, they look upon her as the *teacher*, not the mere *agent* to *compel* the recitation of the contents of the book. Thus, an interesting fact or an appropriate narrative, introduced into the exercises, is often found to give to the young teacher greater influence over the class, than all the ordinary means of discipline.

The pupil-teacher, accustomed herself to rigid thoroughness, insists upon it from habit, in the recitations of her pupils; the constant explanation leads to inquiry, and this to thought; and in this manner the foundation of correct education is laid.

While the general control of the school, and even much of the teaching, devolve upon the principal, the pupil-teachers are made accountable to her for the deportment of the pupils while under their care, and also for their progress in learning. It is therefore made their duty to report promptly to the principal all cases of misconduct, or neglect of studies.

To render the mode of instruction pursued in the schools of practice, conformable to the methods taught in the Normal School, the principal of the latter devotes a portion of time daily, to the supervision of those teaching in them.

Examinations.—Written examinations of the pupils of the Normal School are made quarterly, in all the regular branches in which instruction has been given during the term. As the pupil's continuance in the school, her position in the class, or her promotion to a higher one, depends upon these tests of scholarship, their results are looked to with much anxiety. The intervals of their occurrence are not sufficiently great to lessen their influence on the recitations of the pupils, or the every-day discharge of duty; while their repetition is frequent enough to afford sufficient means of estimating the improvement. The results of these examinations, with the register of the daily recitations, are preserved; affording a complete history of the pupil's standing and progress, during the whole time of her connection with the school.

Graduating Classes.—Twice a year certificates are granted to such pupils as have completed the prescribed course of study, and were considered properly qualified to perform the duties of teachers in the public schools.

In determining the pupil's claim to a certificate as a properly qualified teacher, three leading requisites are considered, besides her moral qualities:

1. Her knowledge of the branches to be taught.
2. Her ability to communicate what she knows.
3. Her general literary attainments.

Every teacher should be so thoroughly conversant with the branches she professes to teach, as to be able to conduct the recitations without the use of text books; as, in proportion to her ability to do this, she will succeed in imparting to her pupils a *knowledge* of the subject, instead of its *mere definition*—the certain result of mere routine teaching from text books. It is obvious that ability to illustrate the subject of instruction, must depend entirely upon the teacher herself being so familiarized with it, as readily to meet the pupil's difficulties by prompt and clear illustrations.

Although a perfect acquaintance with the subjects proposed to be taught, is essential to the teacher, yet, to possess knowledge without ability to communicate it, would not constitute a qualified teacher; while the greatest powers to impart, could not compensate for ignorance of the branches proposed to be taught.

Thus, the perfect scholar may be an unsuccessful *teacher*, while the perfect teacher *must* be a perfect *scholar*, at least to the extent of the branches she teaches. The casual observer, or even the inattentive child, does not fail to distinguish between the mystifying, misleading, stultifying, and inefficient attempts of the *mere scholar* to teach, and the developing, educating, and even creating power of the thorough teacher. Adopting these views of the relative importance of scholarship and aptness to teach, and their inseparable connection as essential qualifications in forming the perfect teacher, no certificate is granted to a pupil deficient in either.

As a test of the candidate's literary qualifications, the results of every examination, from the time of her admission to the completion of the full course of study, in connection with her daily recitations, are considered. In estimating her ability to teach, and tact in school discipline, her performances in the schools of practice, occupying more than one-sixth of the time of her pupilage in the Normal School, are taken as a guide.

The moral character, industrious habits, and integrity of purpose of the candidate, are determined from an acquaintance extending through a period of time amply sufficient to arrive at a correct conclusion.

The following is a copy of the certificate given to graduates of the Normal School:

NORMAL SCHOOL.

First School District of Pennsylvania.

THIS IS TO CERTIFY, That —— has pursued and completed, in a satisfactory manner, the course of study of the NORMAL SCHOOL, and is deemed competent to impart instruction in the branches taught in the Public Grammar Schools.

Principal.

By authority of the Controllers of Public Schools.

THIS CERTIFICATE is granted to ——, a pupil of the NORMAL SCHOOL, in testimony that her literary attainments, industrious habits, and integrity, qualify her to discharge properly all the duties of a Teacher.

President of the Board of Controllers.

Secretary.

Committee of the Normal School

Philadelphia, 18—

The Normal School was conducted on this plan by Prof. A. T. W. Wright, who had charge of the institution from its organization in Feb., 1848, until his resignation in 1856; and by Prof. Philip A. Cregar, until July, 1859, when it was converted into a High School for Girls. During this period of eleven years and a half, 1,127 pupil teachers were admitted on examination from the various Grammar Schools, of whom 400 received the diploma, over 700 were engaged as teachers in the schools of the city, and 153 remained as members of the High School.

The Public High School for Girls went into operation on the 29th of August, 1859, under the same committee and teachers who had been charged with the supervision and instruction of the Normal School. In the Report of the Principal, dated February 13th, 1860, there is the following reference to the Normal School, and the reasons for dropping the Model or Practice School, which gave it its practical professional character. The theoretical preparation for teaching was still retained in the course of instruction in the High School.

The improved condition of our schools, as compared with that which they presented at the establishment of the Normal School, gives striking evidence of the wisdom that prompted its institution. Its efficiency must have been much less without the School of Practice, yet this right arm of its power was destined to become the means of its destruction.

Many objections were raised to the organization of the Model School, and its failure predicted as a necessary result of the youth and inexperience of the pupil teachers, and the constant change which gave a new teacher to each class every two weeks.

These seeming disadvantages proved to be real superiorities over the system of permanent teachers.

The want of experience was compensated for in the superintendence of one who was competent to point out all the errors, and present to the young teacher the most approved modes of imparting instruction in every branch taught.

The short period allotted to the pupil for teaching did not admit of any relaxation of energy, and the amount of labor performed during the year by a corps of teachers changed every two weeks, was much greater than the energies of any single teacher for that whole period could possibly have produced.

Besides, the pupil teacher, having just learned what she was called upon to communicate to others, was keenly alive to the obstacles in the way of the learner, and explained small matters which the older teacher is likely to give the pupil credit for knowing, and pass over without coming down to the capacity of the scholar.

In short, from these advantages and the close system of teaching adopted in the School of Practice, requiring a reason for every thing that admitted of demonstration, the school rose from one of an elementary character to a successful competitor of the Grammar Schools in furnishing pupils for the Normal School.

This success was attributed by the principals of the Girls' Grammar Schools to extraneous advantages, of which they complained in a formal remonstrance, bearing date April 1st, 1859, and asked to have its grade reduced so as to remove it from the arena of competition.

This memorial was submitted to a special committee, who reported at a special meeting of the board held May 26th, 1859, in favor of abolishing the School of Practice and changing the Normal School into a High School, which was adopted by the board, June 9th.

In accordance with this action of the board the Normal School Committee prepared a plan for the organization of a Girls' High School, which was presented and adopted at the meeting of the board held June, 1859.

First.—The instructors shall be a Principal and nine assistants, a Professor of French, and a Professor of Music.

Second.—The number of pupils shall not exceed three hundred and fifty.

Third.—The first examination for admission of pupils shall commence on the 5th of July, and semi-annually thereafter on the last Monday of June and January.

Fourth.—Candidates must be fourteen years of age, they must present certificates that they are pupils of a Grammar School of the city of Philadelphia; and, after the first examination, that they have been pupils of a public school in the city for at least one year; and must pass a satisfactory examination in the following branches, viz.: Orthography, Definition of Words, Reading, English Grammar, History of the United States, Geography, Arithmetic and Penmanship.

Fifth.—The examinations (after the first) shall be conducted by the instructors of the school, from written questions previously prepared by them and approved by the committee of the school. It shall be the duty of said committee to be present and to assist at the examination, and the admission of the candidates shall be subject to their approval.

Sixth.—The course of studies and instruction shall comprise a three years' course, and shall be as follows:

JUNIOR CLASS.—Reading, Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, Algebra, Physical Geography, Latin, Analysis of Language and Structure of Sentences, Natural Philosophy, Constitution of the United States, Synonyms, Rhetoric, Composition, Exercises in Drawing and Vocal Music.

MIDDLE CLASS.—Natural Philosophy, continued, Constitution of the United States, completed, English Literature, Arithmetic, Algebra, Latin, Rhetoric, Drawing, Composition and Vocal Music, continued, Mensuration, Moral Philosophy, Physiology, General History, Ornamental Penmanship, Constitution of Pennsylvania, Exercises in Criticism, and French, commenced.

SENIOR CLASS.—Latin, French, Mensuration, Algebra, General History, Exercises in Ornamental Penmanship, Drawing and Vocal Music, continued, Geometry, Ancient History, Mental Philosophy, Astronomy, Chemistry, with Lectures, Exercises in Criticism of English Literature, Botany, Geology, and Mythology.

During the last two years, pupils who intend to become teachers shall have instruction and frequent exercises in teaching.

The number of pupils being limited to 350, the pupils of the Normal School (153) were taken as a nucleus for the High School, and an examination of candidates from all the Grammar Schools, was held, under the direction of the High School Committee, by special examiners appointed by the Board.

The whole number admitted at this examination was 211, of which 66 were from the Model School, being nearly one-third of the whole number admitted from twenty-four schools. The High School, thus organized, was put into operation August 29th, 1859, as nearly in accordance with the above plan as circumstances would permit.

In 1860, on the recommendation of the Committee of the School, the Controllers gave prominence again to the Normal character, and it has since been designated in the official reports as the Girls' High and Normal School. The Committee referred to in a special report dated June 7th, 1860, remark:

"As the normal character of the High School is of more importance to the Public School system of our city than merely an extended course of study in the higher branches of learning, the Committee feel it their bounden duty to preserve this characteristic.

In their report for the year ending December 31, 1862, the Controllers remark:

No school under the management of the Board has so well fulfilled the expectations of its friends, so entirely accomplished the purposes of its foundation, as the Girls' High and Normal School.

In his report for the same year Prof. Cregar gives the names of 182 pupils who had been appointed teachers in either public or private schools since 1860.

Plans of City Normal School-house in Philadelphia.

The Normal School of Philadelphia was instituted in 1848, "for the thorough training of female teachers of the public schools, in those branches of a good English education, and in such practical exercises as will discipline and develop the mind, adorn and elevate the character, insure the best mode of imparting knowledge, establish uniformity in teaching, prevent fruitless experiments, manifold mistakes, and irreparable loss of time, with all their consequences to teachers and pupils." The building will accommodate 150 Normal pupils, and a School of Practice of 350 pupils, distributed in eight classes.

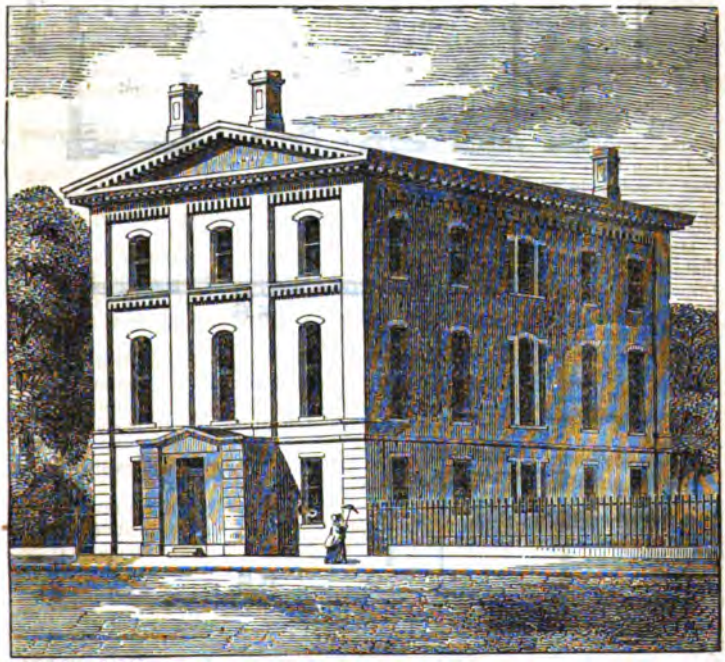


Fig. 1. Perspective.

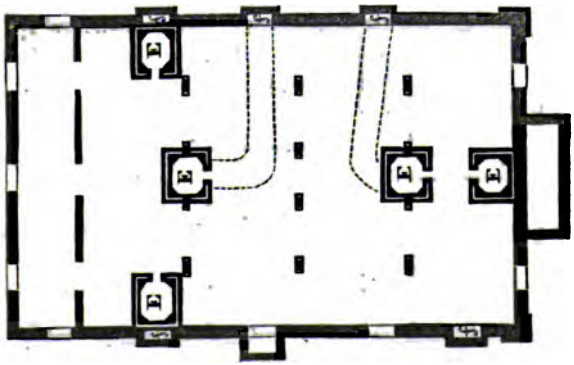


Fig. 2. Plan of Cellar.

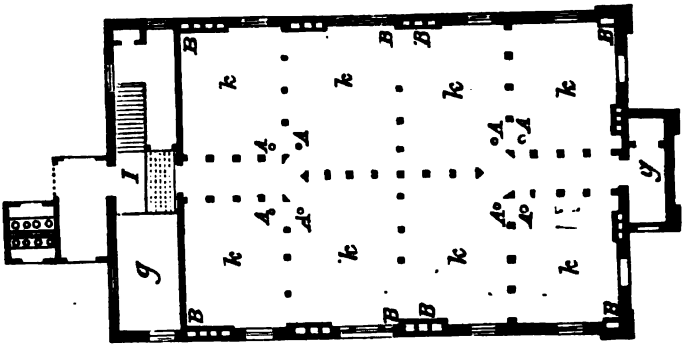


Fig. 3. First Floor.

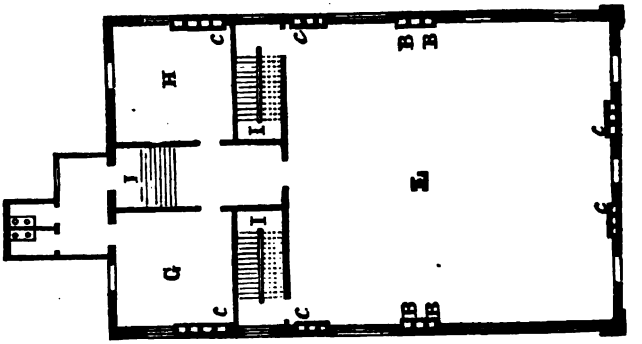


Fig. 4. Second Floor.

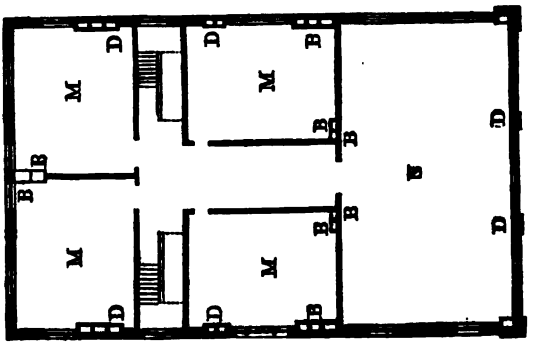


Fig. 5. Third Floor

VII. THE WESTERN LITERARY INSTITUTE.

AND COLLEGE OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS.

THE WESTERN LITERARY INSTITUTE AND COLLEGE OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS, more familiarly known to its members and to the public as THE COLLEGE OF TEACHERS, was not only one of the earliest of the educational associations of our country, but also proved itself one of the best, one of the most active, energetic and laborious, and one of the most practical and widely influential. Started by practiced teachers, it early enlisted in its cause the aid and coöperation of the most prominent professors and teachers in the numerous colleges and high schools of the West, and through them acting with that freedom and energy of will and soundness of judgment which characterize a new country, and the West especially, it exerted a beneficial influence upon teachers and schools generally, and somewhat more indirectly upon public opinion, legislative action and public school systems. This influence commencing in Ohio and Kentucky, was extended into every State then existing in the Mississippi and Ohio valleys, and also in some degree to the Atlantic States from Pennsylvania southward. The "College" originated in the "Western Academic Institute and Board of Education," which was founded in Cincinnati in the year 1829 through the exertions of Albert Picket and Alexander Kinmont; the first a veteran and well-known teacher of nearly forty years experience—the latter the talented principal of a Cincinnati academy. The purpose of the association was "to promote harmony, coöperation, and the diffusion of knowledge among its members, and to discuss such subjects as might be considered conducive to the advantage of education generally," and its peculiar feature was a "Board of Education" consisting of honorary members (not teachers) whose duty it was to visit and inspect the schools of the members of the Institute. Its meetings were monthly, and discussions were held during the year upon school government and the best modes of teaching. The first annual meeting, which is also considered as the first anniversary of the College of Teachers, was held on June 20th, 1831, and

was opened by an address from Rev. C. B. McKee, who was probably the first president. Addresses were also delivered by Rev. R. H. Bishop, the president of Miami University, and by Alexander Kinmont. The proceedings and addresses were published in the first number of the "*Academic Pioneer*," the first educational journal of the North-west, and conducted by a committee appointed by the Institute. Its publication was, however, discontinued through want of patronage; a second number only appeared in December, 1832, containing the proceedings of the second annual meeting.

But the results of the Institute thus far were found unsatisfactory. Its operations were mostly confined to the city of Cincinnati and its designs were almost wholly paralyzed by jealousies, local prejudices, and conflicting interests. Some of its founders were ready to abandon it, when Mr. Albert Picket proposed a plan for increasing its usefulness and respectability by calling a convention of the instructors and friends of education throughout the West. Circulars of invitation were accordingly sent to all teachers, whether in colleges, academies, or schools, and a considerable number convened at Cincinnati, continuing in session from the 3d to the 6th of October, 1832. Rev. Timothy Alden was appointed chairman and O. L. Leonard, of Frankfort, Ky., secretary. At this convention the "COLLEGE OF TEACHERS" was organized and a constitution adopted which, as slightly modified at the two subsequent meetings, was as follows:—

CONSTITUTION.

Whereas, The convention of Teachers assembled in Cincinnati, deeply impressed with the importance of organizing their profession in the Valley of the Mississippi by a permanent association, in order to promote the sacred interests of Education so far as may be confided to their care, by collecting the distant members, advancing their mutual improvement, and elevating the profession to its just intellectual and moral influence on the community, do hereby resolve ourselves into a permanent body, to be governed by the following Constitution:—

ARTICLE I. 1. This association shall be known by the name of "The Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers." 2. Its objects shall be to promote by every laudable means, the diffusion of knowledge in regard to Education, and especially by aiming at the elevation of the character of teachers who shall have adopted instruction as their regular profession.

ARTICLE II. 1. This association shall be composed of such teachers of good literary and moral character, as may sign this constitution and pay to the Treasurer at the time a fee of one dollar; and such Societies for the promotion of Education, as are now or may hereafter be formed, which shall annually send delegates to its meetings. 2. Any gentleman eligible to membership, by paying at one time the sum of ten dollars, shall become a member for life, and be exempt from any further assessment. 3. An assessment of one dollar shall be laid on each member (except life members,) which if omitted to be paid within one year after the notice has been given him by the Treasurer, shall be considered as a forfeiture of membership. 4. Honorary members may be elected by the Society at the recommendation of the Board of Directory.

ARTICLE III. 1. The officers of the Society shall be a President, one Vice-President and five Directors for each State represented in this Institute, a Corresponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, and a Treasurer, all of whom shall form the Board of Directory, to be elected at the annual meeting, and serve until their successors be chosen. 2. The President shall preside at the meetings of the Society. In case of his absence, a Vice-President, or a President *pro tempore* shall occupy the chair. 3. The Recording Secretary shall give notices of all meetings, keep a regular record of their proceedings, and have charge of the archives of the Society. 4. The Corresponding Secretary, subject to the Board of Directory, shall be the organ of communication with other Societies and individuals. 5. The Treasurer shall collect and receive all moneys due the Society, and pay them out at the order of the Directors; he shall keep a true account of all his receipts and disbursements, and make a report annually thereof, and oftener if required by the Directory. 6. The Board of Directors shall have the general management and supervision of the Society—with authority to devise and carry into effect such measures as will best advance its interests. They shall appoint competent persons to deliver the annual address and lectures, and recommend to the Society suitable persons to serve on standing committees. It shall be their duty to see that proper notice be given of the annual meeting by the Recording Secretary, at least three months previous to the time of convening. They shall appoint their own chairman and recorder, and exhibit their proceedings and report thereon at the annual meetings, and fill all vacancies that may occur in the Board or other offices of the Society. They shall have power to appoint from their number a local Executive Committee to carry into effect under their direction all the duties assigned to them by this Constitution. It shall further be the duty of the Executive Committee to procure the annual address and lectures for publication; they shall have the privilege of examining the reports of standing committees and other communications to the Society, and to publish such of them as may, in their opinion, throw light on the subject of education. 7. Each section of the Directory, with its Vice-President, in the States represented in this institution, shall have power to admit associates of this body, and shall be charged with the interests of education within their State, responsible to the general Institute for their proceedings which they shall report, at the annual meeting of this body; they shall have power to establish their own by-laws, not inconsistent with this Constitution.

ARTICLE IV. 1. The stated meeting of this Society shall be held annually on the first Monday in October, in the city of Cincinnati. 2. Special meetings may be convened by order of the Directory, having previously given two months notice. 3. The Board of Directory shall hold their stated meetings during the sitting of the Institute, and shall have power to make rules for their government.

ARTICLE V. 1. By-laws in accordance with this Constitution may be made at any meeting. 2. No alteration or amendment of this Constitution shall be made unless recommended by the Board of Directory, and agreed to by a majority of the members present, at an annual meeting.

The next (THIRD) general convention was held at Cincinnati, September 9th to 13th, with increased power and interest. Prof. Thomas J. Matthews presided. A number of addresses were delivered before the meetings by Prof. H. Bascom, Mason Butler, Alex. Kinmont, Prof. C. Bradford, Dr. Lyman Beecher, Pres. B. O. Peers, Prof. C. E. Stowe, and others, and discussions were held upon various subjects connected with common schools, by such men, among others, as Dr. Beecher, Pres. Peers, Judge Hall, Prof. E. Beecher, T. Walker, W. Greene, and S. J. Atlee. A school agent was appointed for the State of Ohio, and as an appreciable proof of the interest and spirit awakened at the meeting, it is stated that the amount of $262 was immediately contributed for its support.

The plan was here commenced, which was always afterwards pursued and

found very effective, of referring subjects of educational interest to a number of special committees, who at the following meeting made written and very often able reports, which in turn gave rise to many animated and frequently protracted discussions. The constitutional requirement of the election of a Vice-President and Directory from each State represented in the College, tended to preserve and extend the interest in the institution, while the faithful exertion of an always efficient Executive Committee secured the willing aid of able men from all parts of the West and South, and thus the meetings were made both interesting and profitable. An imperfect record only has been preserved of these earlier meetings and none of the addresses were published but such as appeared in the first number of the "*Pioneer*," but of the seven subsequent meetings, the proceedings and very nearly all the addresses and reports were published in full, in six volumes, under the title of the "*Transactions of the Western Literary Institute, &c.*" The minutes of the eleventh meeting, in 1841, appeared in pamphlet form, while of the later meetings until the last in 1845, we have nothing more than newspaper notices. For the sake of condensation, the subjects of the numerous addresses and reports, with the names of the authors alphabetically arranged, and the dates of delivery, are given in an annexed summary, with also a catalogue of the officers of the Institute for the years in which they are reported (1831, 1834–1842), omitting as of less importance the names of the five Directors elected annually from each State.

The FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING was held in Cincinnati, October 6th to 11th, 1834. This meeting was especially characterized by the eloquent address of Thomas S. Grimké, of South Carolina, against "*The Study of the Classics*," and the discussion that followed upon the subject, between him and Mr. Kinmont. Other able addresses were delivered and reports made, and discussions were held upon "*The Use of the Bible as a Class-book*," participated in by Grimké, Kinmont, and D. Drake—on "*Corporal Punishment*," by Grimké, J. L. Wilson, and Drake—on "*Emulation as a Motive in Education*," by Kinmont, Drake, W. H. McGuffey, J. L. Van Doren, F. Eckstein, A. M. Bolton, A. Wattles, W. Nixon, E. Slack, M. A. H. Niles, T. J. Matthews, and Fisher—on "*Circuit Schools*," and on "*The Employment of a Traveling Agent and Lecturer on Education.*" "*The Use of the Bible as a Text-book*" in all schools was unanimously recommended; this action, though frequently discussed at other meetings was always sustained, and it was also now made the declared policy of the Institute not to constitute itself a "tribunal of review," nor to recommend any other text-book or series of books for introduction into the schools. A Board of Examiners was appointed for the purpose of granting certificates of qualification to teachers voluntarily offering themselves for examination in a course of study as prescribed at the last meeting for the different classes of schools. This movement towards elevating the "profession" of teachers was, however, of little effect. Some action was also taken for promoting the formation of auxiliary State societies, of which the Executive Committee reported one as already formed in Ohio, which had obtained a charter for a "Teachers' Institute."

The FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 5th to 10th, 1835, and proved to be one of unusual interets. The reports of Samuel Lewis, School Superintendent for Ohio, upon "*The best method of Establishing and Forming Common Schools in the West*," and of Prof. C. E. Stowe upon "*The Education of Immigrants*," gave rise to discussions of uncommon earnestness

and ability, in which Messrs. Drake, Kinmont, McGuffey, E. D. Mansfield, Judge Looker, T. Walker, and J. L. Wilson took active parts. There was also a discussion by Messrs. Drake, Kinmont, and others, upon "*The Study of Anatomy and Physiology in Schools.*"

Committees were appointed for each of the States of Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana, to circulate and present to the Legislatures of those States petitions for immediate and efficient enactments providing for the universal education of all free citizens, and for the establishment of institutions for the education of a sufficient number of teachers. Each State Directory was also advised to convene the friends of education for the organization of auxiliary State societies, and State conventions were accordingly held at Lexington in November, 1835, and at Columbus in January, 1836.

The SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 3d to 7th, 1836. At this meeting there were discussions upon "*The Use of the Bible in Schools,*" by Rev. J. L. Wilson, Dr. Alex. Campbell, Bishop Purcell, Kinmont, and others; on "*The best method of Studying the Bible in Schools,*" on "*The division of Pupils into classes according to their regular or irregular attendance,*" (following a report by Samuel Jervis upon the causes of the fluctuation of schools;) on "*Existing inefficient modes of Instruction,*" by Messrs. W. Twining, W. F. Ferguson, W. H. McGuffey, E. N. Elliott, J. P. Harrison, R. Morecraft, E. Slack, J. L. Talbott, A. Kinmont, and A. Campbell; on "*Manual Labor in Colleges;*" on Dr. Campbell's lecture upon "*Moral Culture,*" by Dr. Harrison, Kinmont, Campbell, and Purcell; on "*The formation of Teachers' Associations;*" and on "*The study of Astronomy and Physiology in Schools.*" A communication was also received from Mrs. Lydia H. Sigourney upon "*Female Education.*" The formation of township libraries, and library associations, was recommended,—a prize of $100 was offered for the best essay on the maxim, "*Knowledge is Wealth,*"—and arrangements were made for the publication of an educational monthly, the "*Western Academician and Journal of Education and Science,*" under the editorship of John W. Picket.

The SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 2d to 7th, 1837. An address by Samuel Lewis upon "*Extending public instruction so as to embrace the educational wants of the whole community,*" gave rise to a protracted discussion by Messrs. Pierce, of Michigan, McGuffey, Kinmont, Purcell, Campbell, Mansfield, Stowe, Lewis, J. Stevens, Harrison, W. Scott, and S. V. Marshall. "*The moral influence of a system of honors and rewards,*" was discussed by Messrs. Lynd, Drake, Harrison, Beecher, P. T. Brooks, and T. Walker; and the subject of "*Emulation as a motive in Education,*" after protracted discussion by Messrs. Drake, Campbell, Mansfield, Stevens, Harrison, Kinmont, Brooks, Purcell, W. Nixon, O. Chester, W. F. Thomas, Beecher, Walker, and McGuffey, was finally referred to a committee for report at the next meeting. There were also interesting debates on a higher education and increased compensation as essential to making a "profession" of teachers, by Messrs. Beecher, Mansfield, N. Wright, Marshall, McGuffey, and others; and again upon the reading of the Bible as a religious exercise in schools. Resolutions were passed approving of the establishment of State Departments of Education, recommending the study of Constitutional Law, and practice in Vocal Music, in

Common Schools, and adopting the "Western Academician" as the the organ of the Institution.

The EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION was held at Cincinnati, October 1st to 6th, 1838. The most prominent subjects for discussion before this meeting were "*Normal Schools*," "*Seminaries for Female Education*," and "*Sunday School Instruction*." The first subject was introduced by Supt. Lewis, was reported upon by Prof. Stowe, and ably debated by Messrs. Lewis, Stowe, Drake, J. Denham, J. C. F. Salomon, McGuffey, T. T. Loomis, C. L. Telford, J. M. Stevenson, Brisbane, and Linsley. The subject of female education was discussed by Messrs. McGuffey, Drake, Stowe, Salomon, Beecher, and Harrison; and the relation of Sunday Schools to Common Schools, and the propriety of permitting the use of public school-houses by Sunday schools were considered at great length by Messrs. Stowe, Harrison, Beecher, W. R. Whitmore, Langdon, McGuffey, Drake, Walker, W. Greene, J. Challen, G. Guilford, C. Graham, Jr., A. G. Smith, and Jervis. A report of Dr. Beecher upon Emulation was followed by a counter report from Messrs. Picket, Drake, and McGuffey, and a discussion, participated in by Messrs. Drake, Harrison, McGuffey, Wylie, Stowe, Arnold, Beecher, Greene, Mansfield, and Salomon. There were other debates upon the effects of a multiplication of colleges, by Messrs. McGuffey, Stowe, Lewis, and M. M. Carll—and upon the use of printed questions and answers. Essays were received from Mrs. A. Lincoln Phelps and Mrs. Caroline Lee Phelps.

The publication of the "Western Academician" having ceased at the close of its first volume, the Executive Committee were advised to continue it if found practicable.

The Institute during the previous year had suffered the loss of one of its ablest and most active members, Alexander Kinmont. Remarks eulogistic of his worth and services were made in the addresses of Mr. Picket and Prof. Stowe.

The NINTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 7th to 12th, 1839. Few addresses were delivered at this meeting and the time was principally occupied in the consideration of reports and in discussion. The question of "*The subjects which should be embraced in a course of Female Education*" was fully discussed by Messrs. Lewis, Wilson, Purcell, W. Johnston, Rev. L. L. Hamline, Prof. Walker, Beecher, J. Wright, Arnold, Carll, Pres. C. G. Forshey, Prof. J. M. Trimble, S. N. Manning, J. McD. Matthews, Rev. Dr. Atlee, Vaughan, and Harrison. Other debates were held upon the influence of "*Chartered Institutions upon Private Schools*," by Messrs. O. M. Mitchell, Telford, W. Greene, Lewis, Pres. T. J. Biggs, J. H. Jones, Hamline, Rev. J. T. Brooke, Manning, Rev. N. Sneythen, Matthews, and Vaughan—on "*Evening Schools*," by Messrs. Telford, P. S. Symmes, B. P. Aydelott, Brooke, Lewis, Blanchard, J. Challen, and J. S. Williams—on "*Teaching as a Profession*," by Messrs. Aydelott, N. Holley, Greene, Johnston, Mansfield, E. P. Langdon, Jones, Symmes, Trimble, Biggs, Forshey, Rev. Mr. Powell, J. L. Talbott, and Dr. W. F. Lowrie—on "*The study of the General and State Constitutions in School*," by Messrs. Greene, Lewis, Wilson, N. Wright, Harrison, Johnston, Trimble, Forshey, Talbott, Telford, Brooke, Wright, and Smith—on "*The association of Sensation and Ideas in Education*," by Messrs. T. Maylin, Harrison, Carll, Manning, Sneythen, and Biggs—and on "*The evil effects of Vagrancy upon Schools*," by

Messrs. J. H. Perkins, Biggs, Brooke, Vaughan, Lewis, M. G. Williams, Carll, Atlee, Powell, Langdon, Challen, Trimble, Jones, J. Dillingham, Telford, and Symmes. The usual exercises were varied by an exhibition of the pupils of the State Institute for the Blind, and by several lectures upon different branches of physical science, illustrated by experiments, by Dr. J. D. Craig. A report was received from an auxiliary society that had been formed in Mississippi.

The TENTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 5th to 10th, 1840. At this meeting addresses were delivered by R. Park and Dr. Morrill, numerous reports were made by the appointed committees, and discussions were held, as follows:—on "*Military discipline in Schools*," by Messrs. O. M. Mitchell, Harrison, Forshey, Perkins, Telford, J. Williamson, N. Wright, Vaughan, Greene, Atlee, Manning, Biggs, and Prof. F. Merrick—on "*A course of study for Females*," by Messrs. Johnston, Harrison, Stowe, Greene, Beecher, Forshey, and Challen—on "*The position of the Ancient Languages in a College Course*," by Messrs. Biggs, Stowe, Mitchell, Brooke, O. Prescott, and Johnston —on "*The definite objects for the action of the College*," by Messrs. Lewis, Biggs, Stowe, Atlee, Talbott, G. R. Hand, Mitchell, Perkins, and F. Merrick—on "*The union of Western teachers*," by Messrs. Brooke, S. P. Langdon, Biggs, Talbott, and Wylie—on "*The proper time for commencing the study of the Greek and Roman classics*," by Messrs. Stowe, Biggs, Merrick, Langdon, Brooke, Lewis, Manning, T. A. Goodhue, Mitchell, Challen, Greene, Beecher, and Forshey—on "*The inutility of college endowments, scholarships, &c.*," by Messrs. Perkins, Manning, Harrison, Biggs, R. Davidson, Greene, Forshey, Wylie, Brooke, Stowe, and Mitchell. Reports were also received from the Cincinnati Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and from the Ohio Mechanics' Institute, as well as from several delegates respecting the condition of education in their respective States.

The ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 4th to 9th, 1841. Addresses were delivered by Pres. Biggs, Prof. Loomis, Dr. Aydelott, Prof. Howard, E. D. Mansfield, and others. Among the reports received was an able one upon "*The defects of the Common School Laws*," made by Dr. Leavitt, and afterwards published in the "Western School Journal," of Louisville. It was followed by a discussion by Messrs. Leavitt, Greene, and W. Johnson. Other debates were held on "*The defects of the present system of instruction*," by Messrs. Greene, Mitchell, Dr. J. Ray, and J. J. Moss—on "*The inutility of College Endowments*," by Messrs. Greene, Biggs, Stowe, H. W. Wright, Moss, J. B. Walker, and Galloway—on "*Teaching as a distinct Profession*," by Messrs. Greene, Moss, Johnson, Galloway, Mitchell, Leavitt, and Wylie—on "*Religious instruction in Colleges and Seminaries*," by Messrs. Stowe, Greene, Harrison, Moss, Walker, Beecher, Davidson, and Wylie—on "*The objections to the study of the Mathematics*," by Messrs. Mitchell, Davidson, Moss, and J. G. Rosenstein—on "*The necessity of the distinct incorporation of each school district for school purposes*," by Messrs. E. P. Langdon, M. G. Williams, and Leavitt—on "*The objects and prospects of the College*," by Messrs. Talbott, Wylie, Biggs, B. Baker, and J. L. Van Doren. Mrs. Emma Willard also communicated an essay upon "*Female Education*." It was decided that the next convention should be held in Louisville, and that the time of meeting should be changed from October to August.

The TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Louisville, Ky., August 15th

to 20th, 1842. The time of the session was chiefly taken up in the discussion of "*The School Laws, and the proposed organization of a profession of educators*" —on a "*Bill concerning Public Instruction*" for the several States—and on "*The various methods of Education and Instruction*"—in which discussions an active part was taken by Messrs. Noble Butler, J. H. Harvey, F. Shackelford, B. B. Smith, O. S. Leavitt, S. H. Thomson, Talbott, B. F. Farnsworth, Harrison, J. W. Hall, M. Sturgess, F. Eckstein, and G. R. Hand. There was also a discussion on "*The introduction of the study of Natural Theology into Schools and Colleges*," by Messrs. Harney, Eckstein, Thomson, Banks, Farnsworth, Buck, Shackelford, and Leavitt. The "Western School Journal," published by O. S. Leavitt at Louisville, was made the organ of the Institute.

An *extra session* of the College was held at Cincinnati, October 20th and 21st, and again at Columbus, Ohio, on the 27th and 28th of December, 1842. The annual sessions of 1843 and 1844 were held at Louisville, but in 1845 it returned to Cincinnati, where a very interesting meeting was held, attended by delegates from New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, as well as from the Western States. But of these meetings we have no further record. The College ceased the publication of its proceedings after 1840; those for 1839 and 1840 having been published by the aid of the Cincinnati Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. The previous volumes had been printed without expense to the Institute, and all other expenses had been defrayed without difficulty from the annual fees and contributions of its members. This interruption in the publication of its proceedings was unfortunate both for the public and the association; for the public, because a large amount of valuable matter was thereby lost, and for the Institute, because the discontinuance discouraged many of the valuable members entirely, and rendered others lukewarm, and finally caused a suspension of its sessions. Another reason for its decline may, perhaps, be found in the removal of the management out of the hands of the working teachers of Cincinnati to those of Louisville. Upon its removal to that city its energy was largely expended upon the somewhat chimerical project of erecting by law a "profession" of teachers. Failure in this and a gradual decline in popular interest, acting upon the more mercurial temperament of Southern men, dampened their ardor and discouraged continued effort. The error was seen too late and the return home could not restore lost vitality. State associations and local Institutes have since taken its place, but being composed in most instances wholly of teachers, they are for that reason inferior to the older "Literary Institute," and want an important element of perpetuity—an element, moreover, whose tendency would be to raise them above their own limited sphere of thought and interest, and bring them into more intimate familiarity with other fields of view, and thought, and action.

ADDRESSES, LECTURES, ESSAYS, AND REPORTS, at the meetings of the College of Teachers from 1831 to 1842.

AYDELOTT, B. P., Pres. Woodward College, Cincinnati.—Reports on the best method of studying the Bible in schools, 1836; on domestic education, 1837; on the use of selections from the Bible in schools, 1837; on the duties now incumbent on American citizens, 1839.—Addresses on the mutual relations of College trustees and faculties, 1837; on the advantages of a department of English Language and Literature in Colleges, 1838; on Christian education in educational institutions. 1841.

BARBEE, Dr. W. J., Cincinnati.—Report on Zoölogy as a branch of education, 1841. Address on Natural Theology as a branch of education, 1842.

BARNARD, H., Hartford.—Address on the conditions of a successful system of public schools, 1842.

BASCOM, Rev. H. B., D. D., Augusta College, Ky.—Address on the philosophy of letters, as a question of moral interest, 1832.

BEECHER, Rev. LYMAN, D. D., Pres. Lane Theol. Sem.—Address on the importance of making teaching a profession, 1833. Report on Emulation, 1838.

BIGGS, T. J., Prof. at Lane Sem.—Addresses on Domestic Education, 1835; on the position of the Ancient Languages in a collegiate course, 1840; on Practical Teaching, 1841. Reports on the definite objects calling for the action of the Institute, 1840; on the formation of a Western Academy of Science, 1840.

BISHOP, Rev. R. H., Pres. Miami Univ.—Addresses on the general demands of education, 1831; on difficulties in the management of colleges, 1836.

BRADFORD, Prof. C.—Addresses on the Modern Languages, 1832; on the kind of education adapted to the West, 1833.

BUCHANAN, J., Madison, Ky.—Report on Emulation as a motive in education, 1834.

BURROUGH, Miss C. M.—Essay on Female Education, 1841.

BUTLER, MANN, Louisville.—Address on the qualifications of teachers, 1832.

BUTLER, NOBLE, Louisville.—Report on the study of History in schools, 1842.

CAMPBELL, ALEX.—Address on the importance of uniting the moral with the intellectual culture of the mind, 1836.

CARLL, M. M.—Address on moral culture, 1838. Report on the order and development of the moral and intellectual faculties, 1840.

CHALLEN, Rev. JAMES.—Report on the importance of cultivating the conscience, 1840.

CRAIG, J. D., Cincinnati.—Address on the present inefficient and superficial modes of instruction, 1836. Lectures on the Laws of Motion; Pneumatics; Electricity; and Electro-Magnetism, 1839.

DAVENPORT, DARIUS.—Report on certain questions from the Trustees of the Cincinnati Schools, 1835.

DAVIDSON, R., Pres. Transylvania Univ.—Reports on the value of the study of Ethics in colleges and schools, 1840; on a collegiate course for the West, 1841.

DILLINGHAM, J.—Report on Education in Georgia, 1839.

DRAKE, DANIEL, M. D., Cincinnati.—Addresses on Physical Education, 1833; on the philosophy of family, school, and college discipline, 1834. Reports on the study of anatomy and physiology in common schools, 1836; on the preparatory education of the physician, 1838.

DUMONT, Mrs. J. L.—Letter on the inducements to adopt teaching as a profession for life, 1837.

ECKSTEIN, F.—Report on Linear Drawing, 1837.

EDWARDS, J. M.—Report on the best method of teaching Geography, 1841.

ELLS, SAMUEL.—Addresses on the dignity of the office of the professional teacher, 1837; on the principles of the formation of society, 1839.

ELLIOTT, Dr. E. N.—Address on a systematic course of Biblical studies, 1842.

FOOTE, J. P.—Addresses on the Mechanics' Institute of Cincinnati, 1837; on Discipline, 1839; on the union of labor and study, 1842.

FORSHEY, Prof. C. G., Natchez.—Reports on Education in Mississippi, 1839; on meteorology, 1841.

GODDARD, F. E., Louisville.—Address on the history of Mathematical Science, 1832.

GRIMKE, T. S., Charleston, S. C.—Address against the classics and mathematics as a part of the course of general education in our country, 1834.

HALL, J. W., Dayton.—Addresses on the Art of Education, 1842; on the character of Washington, 1842.

HAMLINE, Rev. L. L.—Address on a more extended view of Female Education, 1839.

HAND, D., Jr.—Report on the best method of teaching Arithmetic, 1839.

HAND, G. R.—Reports on Primary Instruction, 1839; on a course of instruction in common schools, 1840.

HARNEY, Prof. J. H.—Addresses on learning as essential to educators, 1842; on the teacher's profession and the school laws, 1842.

HARRISON, Dr. J. P.—Address on Popular Education, 1836.

HEHNAN, J. A., Cincinnati.—Report on the peculiarities of German Universities, 1841.

HENTZ, Mrs. C. L.—Poem, 1837. Essay on Conversation as a branch of education, 1838.

HOLLY, NATHANIEL, Cincinnati.—Addresses on preserving the innocence of childhood and uniting to it a thorough education, 1832; on the necessity of universal education, 1833; on professional teaching, 1839. Reports on Mr. Grimke's proposed course of study, 1835; on the means of arousing the community on the subject of education, 1836.

HOPWOOD, WILLIAM, Cincinnati.—Address on the best method of teaching languages, 1834. Report on the need of an improved book of definitions, 1835.

HOWARD, Prof. W. G.—Address on the reciprocal duties of parents and teachers, 1841.

HUNTOON, Rev. BENJ.—Address on the importance of moral education keeping pace with the mechanic arts, 1837.

JOHNSTON, WILLIAM.—Address on Female education, 1839.

JONES, J. H.—Address on infant schools as a valuable auxiliary in the cause of education, 1839

KINMONT, ALEXANDER.—Addresses on the objects of the Institute, 1831; on the study and nature of the ancient languages, 1832; on the study of character, 1833. Reports on the study of the ancient classics a necessary part of education, 1834; on Anatomy and Physiology as a study in schools, 1835; on the means of rendering the study of fictitious compositions beneficial to the student, 1836.

LEAVITT, Dr. O. S.—Reports on the defects of the school laws and the remedies, 1841; on the school laws, 1842.

LEONARD, O. L., Ky.—Reports on the means of arousing the community on the subject of education, 1836; on the best means of early mental culture, 1837.

LEWIS, JOHN, Ky.—Address on Practical Teaching, 1842.

LEWIS, SAMUEL, Ohio School Sup't.—Address on extending the common school course to meet the wants of all classes, 1837. Reports on the best mode of establishing schools at the West, 1835; on the causes of fluctuation of schools; the evils, and remedies, 1836.

LOOMIS, Prof.—Address on Meteorology, its progress and importance, 1841.

LOWRIE, Dr. W. F.—Address on the Natural Sciences, 1839.

LYND, Rev. S. W.—Address on the moral influence of reward in a system of education founded on the word of God, 1837.

McGUFFEY, Rev. W. H., Prof. at Miami Univ.—Address on the influence of the study of the Bible on intellectual and moral improvement, 1834; on the relative duties of parents and teachers, 1835. Reports on English Composition, 1835; on the best method of conducting examinations, 1836.

McKEE, Rev. C. B.—Address on the importance of elevating the teacher, 1831.

McLEAN, Hon. JOHN.—Address on the formation of society, and the introduction of the elementary principles of government in a course of popular instruction, 1838.

McLEOD, DONALD.—Report on Elocution and extemporaneous speaking, 1835.

McMASTER, E. D.—Report on the means of extending the usefulness of the Institute, 1839.

McMATTHEWS, J. D.—Report on a course of study for females, 1840.

MANNING, S. N.—Report on the coöperation of parents and teachers, 1840.

MANSFIELD, E. D.—Addresses on the study of the mathematics, 1834; on the qualifications of teachers, 1836; on the uses of history, 1838. Biographical sketch of J. S. Grimké, 1834. Reports on the study of criminal and constitutional law in literary institutions, 1837; on a "Manual of Instruction" for the Mississippi Valley, 1835; on preparatory education for the legal profession, 1838.

MASON, T. B., Cincinnati.—Report on vocal music as a branch of common school education, 1837.

MATTHEWS, Prof. T. J.—Report on emulation as a motive in education, 1834.

MAYLIN, Miss A. W., Salem, N. J.—Essay on the pains and pleasures of teaching, 1839.

MAYLIN, THOMAS.—Addresses on the nature and object of education, 1832; on the association of sensations and ideas in education, 1839. Reports on the means of cultivating voluntary obedience in youth, 1840; on intellectual and moral science, 1842.

MELINE, J. J.—Address on the study of the modern languages, 1838.

MERRICK, Prof. F.—Report on natural science as part of a college course, 1840.

MERRILL, Dr. SAMUEL.—Addresses on the immortality of the teacher's moral influence, 1840; on economical education, 1841.

MILLS, Rev. T. A.—Report on the evidences of Christianity as a branch of education, 1840.

MITCHELL, Prof. O. M.—Report on civil engineering as a branch of collegiate education, 1837; on learned societies and their influence, 1840; on the main points used in Great Britain against the mathematics, 1841.

MONTGOMERY, Rev. S. H.—Addresses on the necessity and importance of education, 1836; on the study of human life, 1836.

MORRISON, M. W.—Address on common schools, 1831.

MOSS, J. J.—Address on what constitutes good teachers and how to procure them, 1841.

MUMFORD, R.—Address on the duties of parents and trustees, 1832.

MUSSEY, Dr.—Address on the influence of tight lacing upon health and life, 1839.

NILES, M. A. H., Prof. at Hanover Col., Ind.—Addresses on the number of pupils for one teacher, 1832; on the government of public literary institutions, 1834.

NIXON, Prof. W.—Address on the nature and moral influence of music, 1834.

NUTTING, R., Prof. at W. Reserve Col.—Report on so arranging the college vacations as to permit students to engage in teaching, 1836.

OLDS, C. N., Prof. at Miami Univ.—Address on the patriotic duties of teachers, 1839.

PARK, R., Prof. at Univ. of Penn.—Report on pantology, or the classification of human knowledge, 1840.

PEERS, Rev. B. O.—Address on intellectual education, especially in its early stages, 1833.

PENNIMAN, A. W.—Address on methods of teaching the blind, 1839.

PERKINS, J. H.—Addresses on the importance of forming societies auxiliary to the Institute, 1840; on the education of girls, 1842. Reports on the influence of vagrant boys upon our city schools, 1839; on the English universities, 1840.

PHELPS, Mrs. A. H. L.—Essay on female education, 1838.

PICKET, ALBERT, Sen., Prin. Cin. Fem. Institute.—Opening address on the objects of the Institute, 1834; on education, 1835; on parents, teachers, and schools, 1836; on reforms in education, 1838; on the formation of character in individuals, 1837; on the qualification of teachers, 1839; on the want of education, 1841, 1842.

PIERCE, Rev. J. D., Supt. of Pub. Instruction in Mich.—Address on a correct knowledge of human nature essential to successful teaching, 1837.

POST, T. M., Prof. at Ill. Col.—Address on the expediency of studying the classics, 1834.

PURCELL, J. B., Bishop.—Address on the philosophy of the mind, 1836. Reports on using selections from the Bible in schools, 1837; on the Ohio Institution for the blind, 1839.

QUINAN, T. H., Prin. Cin. Adelphi Sem.—Report on emulation as a motive in education, 1834.

RAY, JOSEPH, Prof. at Woodward Col.—Reports on the utility of cabinets of natural science as a means of education, 1836; on the value of the blackboard, and method of using it, 1839; on the influence which Boards of Examination may exert upon the qualifications of teachers, 1840.

REEVES, T. S., Virginia.—Address on education, 1838.

REESE, J. L., Phila.—Address on the Lancasterian or monitorial system of instruction, 1839.
ROBBINS, Prof.—Address on self-education, 1842.
ROSENSTEIN, Dr. J. G.—Address on physical education, 1841.
SALOMON, J. C. F.—Report on gymnastics, 1838.
SCOTT, J. W., Prof. at Miami Univ.—Address on the importance of more practical education, 1835.
SCOTT, Rev. WALTER.—Address on the outlines of true education and the national system, 1837.
SHANNON, JAMES, Pres. Louisiana Coll.—Address on appeals to honor and moral sentiments as a substitute for corporal punishment, 1839.
SIGOURNEY, Mrs. L. H.—Essay on female patriotism, 1836.
SIM, THOMAS, Jr.—Address on the claims of phrenology upon the attention of the teacher, 1836.
SLACK, ELIJAH, D. D., Oxford, O.—Addresses on physical science in general, 1839; on the application of principles to practice in physical science, 1834. Reports on agriculture as a branch of common school education, 1836; on the benefit to be derived to the student from the reading of fictitious compositions in school, 1836.
SMITH, Rev. B. B.—Address on the state of education in Kentucky, 1842.
STONE, E.—Report on book-keeping, 1836.
STOWE, C. E., Prof. at Lane Sem.—Addresses on the discipline of the intellectual powers, 1833; on the present system of education, 1837; on the Bible as a means of intellectual and moral improvement, 1838. Reports on the education of immigrants, 1835; on normal schools, 1838; on preparatory education for the ministry, 1838; on the early history of education, 1840.
TALBOTT, D. T.—Report on the best method of teaching composition, 1835.
TALBOTT, J. L.—Address on learning essential to educators, 1842. Reports on geography, 1839; on an educational periodical in the West, 1842.
VAN DOREN, J. L., Pres. Y. Ladies' Coll., Lexington.—Address on Calisthenics, 1834. Report on the order of studies in primary female schools, 1834.
VANCE, ELIJAH.—Address on a uniform system of common school education and on adapting it to our republican institutions, 1838.
WALKER, TIMOTHY.—Addresses on the object of education in the United States, 1833; on the ultraisms of the age, 1841.
WILLARD, Mrs. EMMA.—Essay on female education, 1841.
WILLIAMS, M. G.—Addresses on manual labor as a means of reducing college expenses; should it be obligatory or optional? 1836; on the importance of educational departments in our State governments, 1837.
WILLIAMSON, JAMES.—Report on the duty of teachers in cultivating a pacific spirit in schools, 1841.
WILSON, J. L., D. D.—Addresses on a system of universal education not only desirable but practicable, 1836; on the objects of the Institute, 1839. Report on infant schools, 1837.
WOOD, WILLIAM, M. D.—Addresses on the influence of education on the physical development of man, 1837; on physical education, 1838.
WOOLLEY, G. W.—Report on the best method of teaching penmanship, 1835.
WYLIE, ANDREW, Pres. Univ. of Ind.—Addresses on discipline in schools and colleges, 1836; on the religious elements of education, 1840; on the best means of elevating the teachers' profession, 1841; on the sentiment of veneration, 1842.

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Wisconsin Territory.—B. Kilbourne, 1839–'41.

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VIII. AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS.

It is difficult to over estimate the importance of Text-Books, in the external or internal economy of education—in the magnitude of the pecuniary interests involved to publishers, authors, and parents, as well as the right performance of the work of instruction by teachers and pupils in schools of every grade. In this and subsequent numbers of the Journal, we purpose to contribute something toward a fuller understanding of the growth and condition of this great interest in this country,—both in its material and its scholastic aspects—of the manufacture and illustration of books, and of the principles and methods applied to the development of particular subjects, as well as of the modes adopted to secure their introduction into particular schools, cities, and states. Although the subject will not be treated regularly in this order, when our review is complete, it will be found to embrace—

I. Authors and Books. A catalogue of authors, including the name of the author, or editor, so far as can be ascertained by the compiler, of every publication, that has been used, or prepared for use as a text-book in this country, with the title, edition, place and date of publication of each work.

II. Subjects. A catalogue of the same books and authors, included in Part I., arranged according to the subject upon which they treat—or at least an index to the authors who have treated of each subject.

III. Publishers. A catalogue of publishers, who will furnish a complete list of the text-books which they have issued, classified by authors and subjects, and which they are now prepared to furnish.

IV. A review of the plan—the principles and development, on which the text-books most in use are prepared, with a comparison of the merits of a few of the principal text-books on the same subject.

V. The results—"the Odds and Ends" of some study, incidental and accidental, as well as designed, as to the origin, illus

trations, authorship, real and claimed, and the religious and political tendencies and aims—apart from the specific and avowed purpose, of certain school books.

VI. Suggestions as to the preparation, and manufacture, and introduction of school books, in reference to the interests of purchasers, teachers, and pupils, as well as of authors, publishers, agents, and venders generally.

PART I. AUTHORS AND BOOKS.

The catalogue of authors and books, of which we commence the publication in this number, was originally intended to embrace the Text-Books in the compiler's own collection, but has been extended to include all of American authorship, publication, or use, of which he has been able to obtain any information. This information, in many instances, is very imperfect and unsatisfactory, but will at least serve as a clue to further inquiry.

The books, to whose title a single asterisk (*) is annexed, as also the editions, whose dates, or places of publication are placed within parenthesis (), are not in his possession. Of each of these books the compiler would be glad to obtain a copy, by exchange of duplicates in his possession, which are indicated by a double asterisk (**).

No dates are abbreviated unless later than 1800. Other abbreviations will need no explanation.

Much pains has been taken to secure correctness and completeness. Many errors, however, and omissions will doubtless be detected in regard to those books, which the compiler has not seen, and whose titles, dates, and places of publication, and authorship have been gleaned from numerous sources, not always reliable.

Corrections and additional information are solicited. To any collector, author, or publisher, who will signify a wish to see the list under any letter of the alphabet, before it is published, that it may be made to include a correct entry of every school book under that letter in his possession or knowledge, an impression will be forwarded, before it is printed, and any addition, or correction returned will be entered, before the same is published.

All communications relating to this subject can be addressed directly to the "*Editor of the American Journal of Education*," *Hartford, Conn.*

H.

HAAS, J. D.,
Kohlrausch's History of Germany. New York, 1859.
HACHETTE,
Elements de Geometrie. Paris.*
HACHENBERG, C. F.,
Grammaticæ Græcæ Pars Prior. Utrecht, 1792.
Elements of Greek Grammar. See *C. A. Goodrich.*
HACKETT, H. B.,
Exercises in Hebrew Grammar. Andover.*
Winer's Grammar of the Chaldee. Andover, 1845.*
HACKLEY, CHARLES W.,
Treatise on Algebra. New York, 1854.*
Elementary course of Geometry. New York, 1855.*
Elements of Trigonometry. Phil., 1838.*
Treatise on Trigonometry. New York, 4th edition, 1853, 1854, 1858.*
HADDON, JAMES,
Rudimentary Book-Keeping. London, 1851.*
Rudimentary Arithmetic. London, 1851.*
Elements of Algebra. London, 1850.*
HADLEY, JAMES,
Greek Grammar for Schools, etc. New York.*
HAHN, ——,
Greek Testament. Edited by E. Robinson. N. York.*
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HAINE, WILLIAM,
Lily's Rules Construed. London, 1768. See *W. Lily.*
HAINES, J. S.,
Chemical Catechism. Philadelphia.*
HALDEMAN, J. J.,
Analytic Orthography. Philadelphia.*
HALDEMAN, S. S.,
Elements of Latin Pronunciation. Phil. 1851.**
Analytic Orthography. Phila. 1860.*
HALE, ENOCH,
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HALE, SALMA,
History of the United States. New York, 1826, (1827,) 1839, 1849. Keene, 1829, 1830, (1831, 1835.) Cooperstown, 1839, 1843. Buffalo, '53.
HALE, SARAH J.,
The Bible Reading-Book. Phila. (1854,) 1855.
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HALL, MISS A.,
Manual of Morals, *(Anon.)* Andover, 1848. Boston, 1849, (1863.)
The Literary Reader. Boston, 1850.**
HALL, CHARLES H.,
Notes on the Gospel, for Bible Classes, etc., 2 vols. New York, 1857.*
HALL, JOHN,
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Reader's Manual. Hartford, 1839. 2d edition, 1840, (1841,) 1848.
Reader's Guide. Hartford, 1836. 2d edition, 1837. (3d edition, 1837, 1838, 1839,) 1841.**
HALL, JOSEPH,
Guide to the English Language. Utica, 1st edition, 1819.*
HALL, R.
English Method of Bookkeeping. Wakefield, 1810.*
HALL, S. R.,
Child's Instructer; or, Lessons on Common Things. Andover, 1832, 1836.*
HALL, S. R., *(continued.)*
The Grammatical Assistant. Springfield, 1832. 2d edition, 1833.
Child's Assistant to the Geography and History of Vermont. Montpelier, 1827, 1831.*
Geography for Children; or, Child's Book of Geography. Springfield, 1832. N. York.*
School Arithmetic. Andover, 1836.
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HALL, S. R., & A. R. BAKER,
School History of the United States. (Boston, 1836, 1843.) Andover, 1839. (Philadelphia.)
HALL, T. G.,
Outlines of Astronomy. London, 14th ed. 1854. Same. Ed. by C. List. Philadelphia, 1847.*
HALL, WILLIAM,
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HALLIWELL, ——,
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HALLOCK, EDWARD J.,
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HALLOWELL, BENJAMIN,
Key to Ryan's Bonnycastle's Mensuration. Philadelphia, 1847.*
HALLWORTH, THOMAS,
Efficacious Method in History and Chronology. New York, 1824.
Same—applied to General Ancient History. New York, 1824.*
Same—applied to Sacred History. N. York, 1824.*
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Rational Mnemonics. New York, 1845.
Outlines of Geography, simplified, etc. New York, 1846.*
HALSEY, ——,
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HAMEL, NICHOLAS,
Grammatical Exercises in French. London, 6th edition, 1809.
HAMILTON, G.,
Rudiments of Animal Physiology. Edited by Reese. Philadelphia, 1846.**
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Perrin's Fables, French and English. London, 6th edition, 1858.
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HAMILTON, HUGH,
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HAMILTON, H. P.
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HAMILTON, J. A.,
Wilhem's Method of Teaching Singing. New York. n. d.
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Introduction to Merchandise. Edinburgh, 1777.*
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Levizac's Grammar of the French Tongue. N. York, 1st edition, 1820.
HANAFORD, L. B., & J. W. PAYSON,
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Book-keeping by Single and Double Entry, (High School edition.) Boston, n. d.
Same, (Academy edition.) Boston, n. d.
HANDY, W. R.,
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The American Violinist. Boston.*
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Trigonometry. 2 vols. London, 1849.*
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Bible History; Text-book for Seminaries, etc. New York.*
HANSON, J. H.,
Preparatory Latin Prose-Book. Boston, 1861. 4th edition, 1862.
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HARDIE, JAMES,
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Complete System of Practical Bookkeeping. (Hartford, 1838;) New York, 1855.
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HARRIS, THADDEUS MASON,
Natural History of the Bible. Boston, 1820.
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KNELLER HALL TRAINING SCHOOL, ENGLAND.



PLAN—NO. 11. FRONT ELEVATION.

IX. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

Plans and Description of Ward School-house No. 30, in the City of New York.

Fig. 1. Front Elevation.



Ward School, No. 30, is located in the Sixteenth Ward of the City of New York, on the north side of Twenty-fourth Street, between the Seventh and Eighth Avenues. The school-house, represented in Figures 1, 2, 3, 4, and completed in 1852, has a front of 54 feet on the street, and is 95 feet deep, with side wings, each 18 by 25 feet. It was built after plans and specifications drawn by T. B. Jackson, Architect.

The basement of the main building in front is built of Connecticut brown stone, as are also the windows and door trimmings, finely cut and polished. The front and side of the main building, as well as the front of the wings, are built with smooth brick, painted and sanded brown-stone color.

The basement story is 8 feet high in the clear, and except such portions as are used for class-rooms, stairs, water-closets, &c., is flagged so as to afford a shelter for the pupils in inclement weather, and is divided by a wall to separate the sexes.

The building is thoroughly warmed by six of Culver's patent furnaces, and ventilated with flues in the walls, with openings at the floor and ceiling in each room.

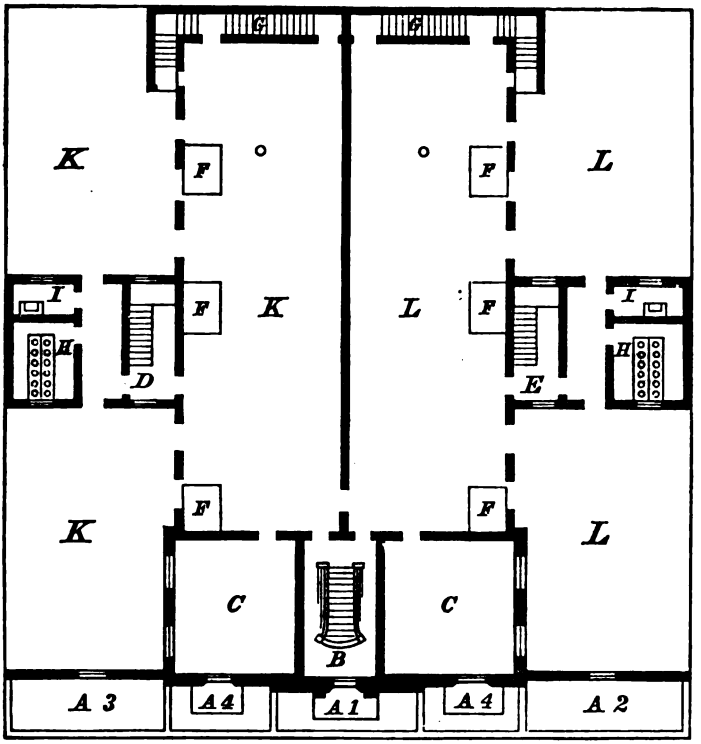
The second and third stories are occupied respectively by the female and male departments of the upper school. The large rooms are used to assemble the whole school at the opening in the morning, and are so arranged that, by closing the sliding doors they can be used as separate rooms, which, together with the other class-rooms, afford ample accommodations for the several classes pursuing their different studies.

The croton water is brought into the basement and each story of the main building, and every convenience is provided for comfort and cleanliness.

The stair-cases afford ample egress, and are so constructed as to provide against all accidents, and the doors are hung so as to swing outwards.

The windows have inside folding blinds.

Fig. 2. Plan of Basement.

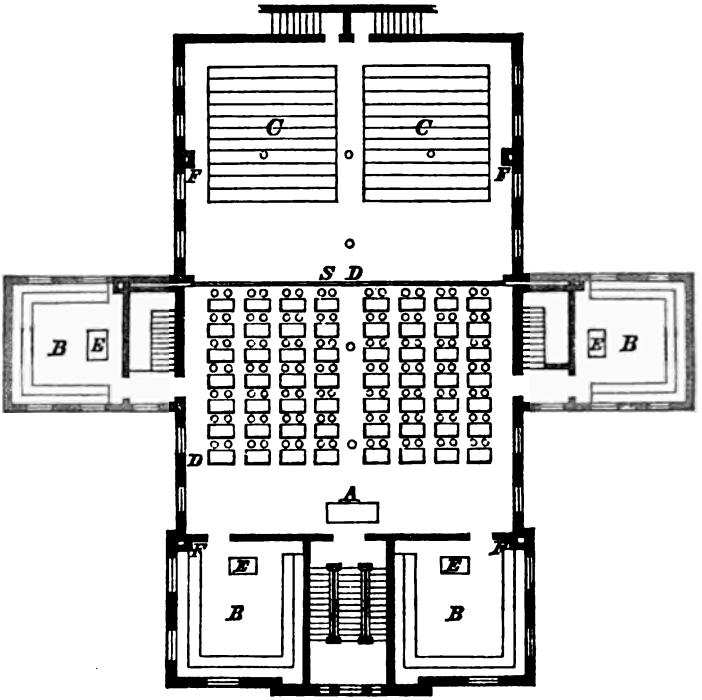


A 1—Entrance for teachers and visitors.
A 2—Entrance for girls.
A 3—Entrance for boys.
A 4—Entrance to rooms C.
B—Principal stair-case, constructed with one wide center flight, and two side flights leading to the top story.
C—Rooms which were intended as vestibules, but have been made into class-rooms, and fitted up with seats.
D—Boys' stairs.
E—Girls' stairs.
F—Culver's furnaces for heating the building.
G—Stairs to primary department for children in the gallery.
H—Children's water-closets.
I—Teacher's water-closets.
K—Boys' play-ground.
L—Girls' play-ground.



The first floor, divided by folding doors into two large rooms and four class-rooms, are occupied by the primary department.

Fig. 3. Plan of First Story.

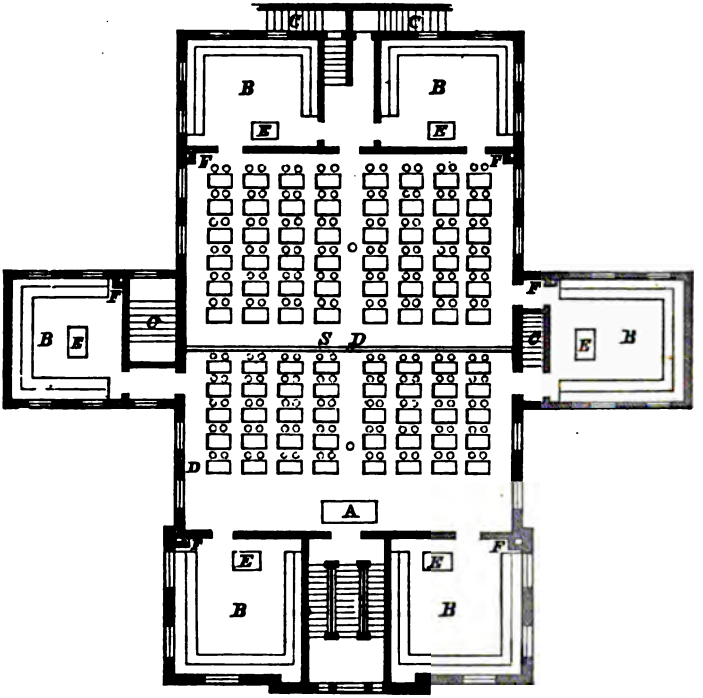


A—Principal's desk.
B—Class-rooms, fitted up with a platform 2 feet 6 inches wide, running round three sides of the room, and two rows of benches.
C—Galleries for small children.
D—Desks in principal school-room.
E—Teacher's tables in class-rooms.
F—Furnace registers for warm air.

No. 5. Ross' Primary Double Desk and Chairs.



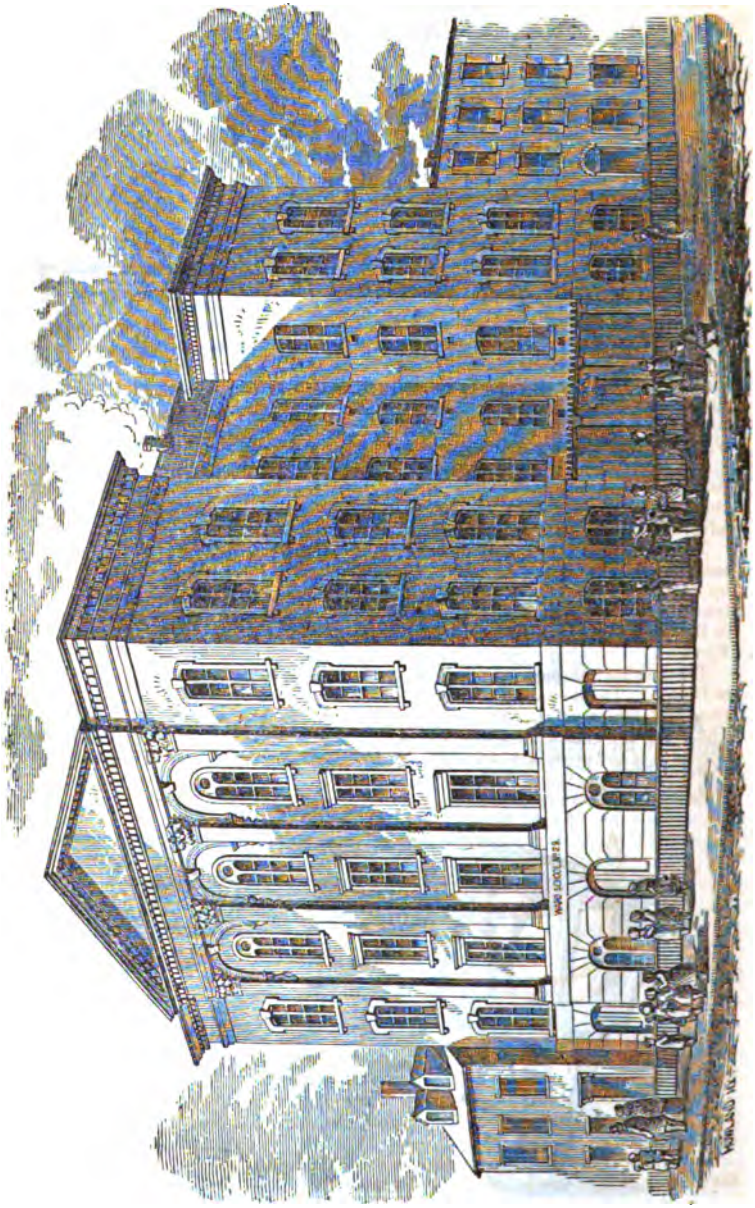
Fig. 4. Plan of Second and Third Story.



A—Principal's desk. B—Class-rooms, fitted up in the same manner as described in the primary department. C—Stairs to yards. D—Desks in principal school-rooms. E—Teacher's tables in class-rooms. F—Furnace registers, where the warm air is admitted in the rooms.

No. 6. Ross' Primary Double Desk and Chair.





Plans and Description of Ward School, No. 29, in the City of New York.

Ward School, No. 29, is situated on the southeast corner of North Moore and Varick Streets, in the Fifth Ward of the City of New York. The school-house, represented in Figures 1, 2, 3, was erected in 1852, after designs and specifications by T. B. Jackson, Esq., Architect, New York, to accommodate a primary department of 500 pupils, between the ages of four and eight years; and two departments, one for 500 girls, between the ages of eight and fourteen, and one for the same number of boys, of the same age. The girls enter on North Moore Street, and the boys on Varick Street.

The new building has a front on North Moore Street of 75 feet, and on Varick Street of 87 feet. The basement, ante-bases, and window trimmings are of Connecticut free-stone, cut in the finest manner; and the brickwork is painted and sanded brown-stone color.

The basement, the floor of which is one foot above the level of the side walk, is ten feet high in the clear, and, except such portions as are used for furnaces, committee room, library, &c., is appropriated to a play-ground, for the pupils, and is divided by a wall to separate the sexes, affording a shelter in unclouded weather.

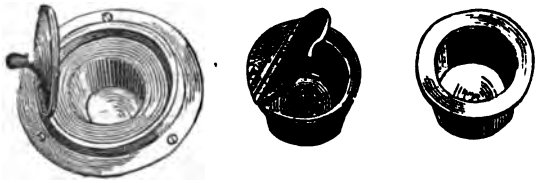
The first floor is 14 feet high in the clear, and is fitted up into a large school-room, 70 feet by 76, with infant class-rooms, for the primary department, and will accommodate over 500 pupils.

The second and third stories, each 14 feet high, are divided in a similar manner, the former to accommodate 300 girls, and the latter 300 boys. One of the class-rooms on each floor is fitted up with seats and desks, to accommodate an advanced class of pupils.

The building is warmed by three of Culver's Furnaces, placed in the basement; and each school-room and class-room is ventilated by one or more flues, carried up in the walls, with openings at the floor and ceilings, controlled by registers, into which the vitiated air escapes. These flues discharge into two larger flues in the attic, which are carried above the roof, and are surmounted by Emerson's Ejectors.

The furniture throughout all the rooms, was manufactured by Joseph L. Ross, of Boston. The desks and seats in the primary department are of four different sizes, and are made after the pattern represented in Figs. 6 and 7, on page 267. The desks and chairs in the two upper rooms, (the wood-work of cherry, and the standards of cast-iron,) are of six different sizes, and are similar to those represented in Fig. 6, on page 237.

Each desk has a cast-iron box, with a lid to receive a glass ink-well.

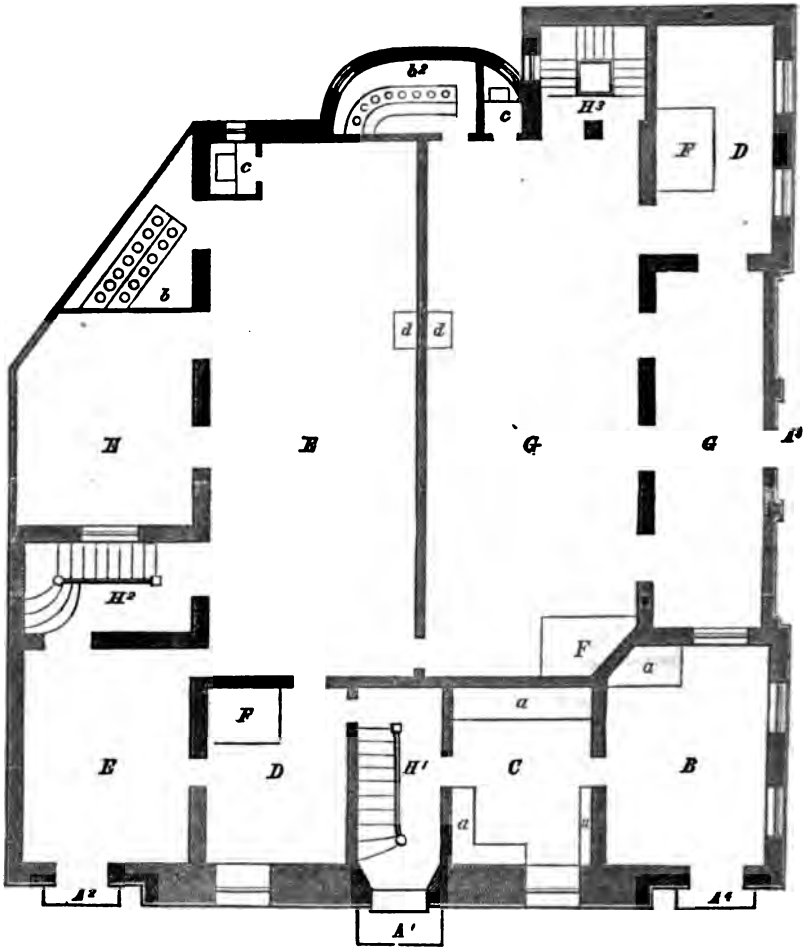


The Croton water is brought into each story; and in the basement every convenience for cleanly habits are provided, such as scrapers, mats, washbasins, towels, brooms, &c.

There are three stair-cases, and each is so constructed as to afford ample egress, and to provide against all accidents; and the doors are hung so as to swing outwards.

The windows are furnished with inside blinds, having revolving slats, so that the amount of light can be easily regulated.

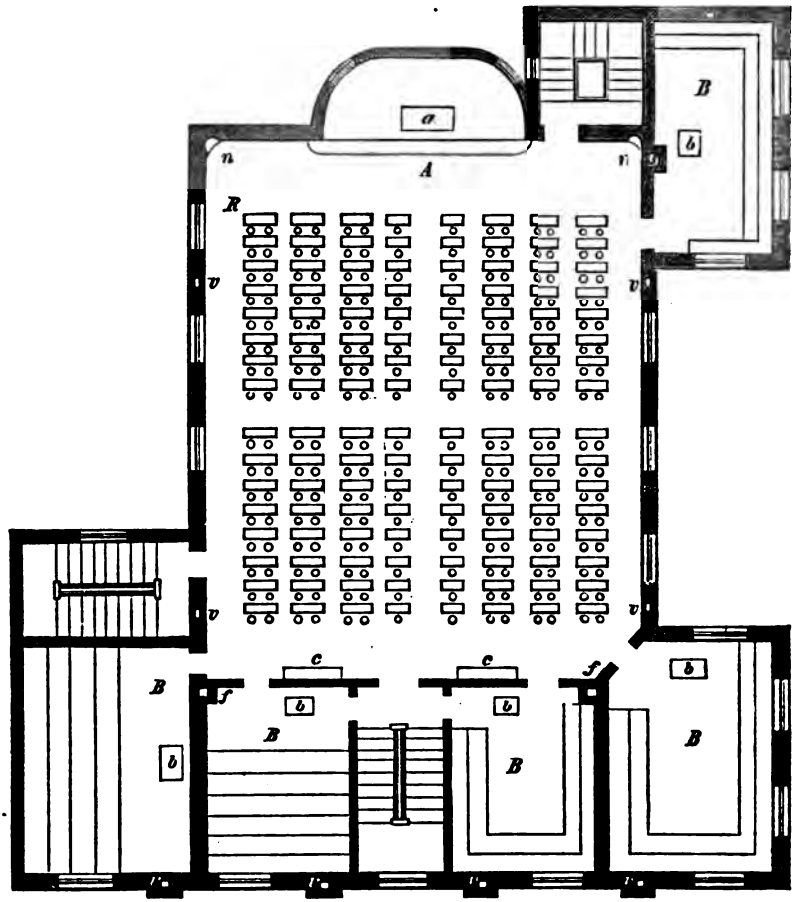
Fig. 2. Basement.



A, 1—Teachers and visitors' entrance.
A, 2—Girls' entrance.
A, 3—Boys' entrance.
B—Committee room.
C—Library.
D—Furnace rooms.
E—Girls' vestibule and play-ground.
F—Culver's furnaces.
G—Boys' play-ground.
H, 1—Teachers' and visitors' stair-case.
H, 2—Girls' stair-case.
H, 3—Boys' stair-case.
a, a, a—Book-cases.
b, b—Water-closets.
C, C—Teachers' closets.
d, d—Croton water, with conveniences for drinking, and cleanliness.

The three stories of the building above the basement are each divided into one large school-room, and five recitation rooms.

Fig. 3. Primary Department.



A—Large school-room, with Ross' desks.

B—Recitation or class-rooms, fitted up with platforms, and two rows of benches running round three sides of each room.

a—Principal's desk in the alcove, the floor of which is raised 16 inches above the floor of the school-room.

b, b—Teachers' tables in class-rooms.

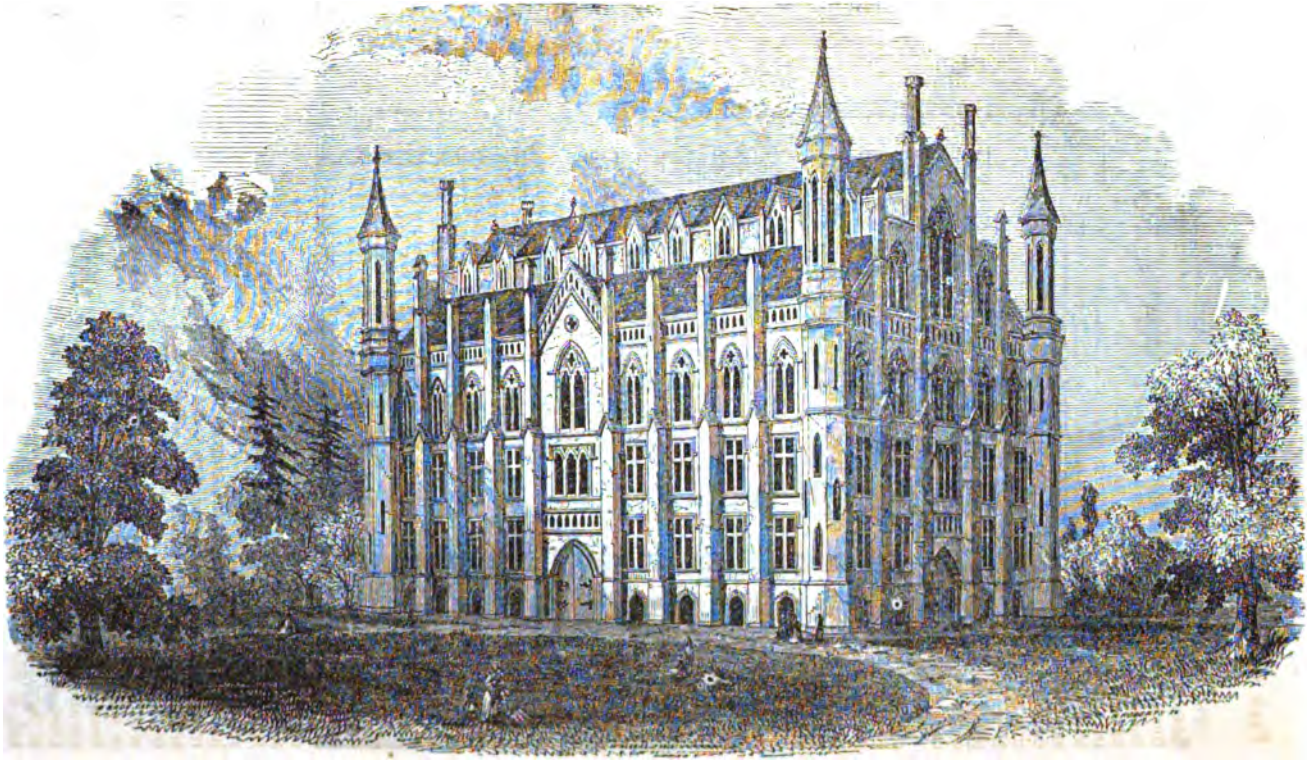
c, c—Book-cases.

n, n—Niches for globes, busts, or statues.

f, f—Registers, supplying warm air from furnaces.

v, v—Ventilation flues.

The Female and Male Departments, fitted up in the same manner, with the exception of the N. W. class-rooms, which have desks to accommodate an advanced class.



Plan and Description of the Free Academy in the City of New York.

The Free Academy is situated on the S. E. corner of Twenty-third street and Lexington avenue, in the upper part of the city, being convenient of access from all the great thoroughfares. The style of architecture, in which the building is erected, is the same as that of the town halls and colleges of the 14th century, in Europe. This style attained its greatest perfection in the Low Countries, and especially in Belgium, which at that period was the great seat of learning, science and the arts, as well as the great centre of the commercial enterprise of Europe. It was the opinion of the architect, therefore, apart from the economy in construction, of the Gothic style, when properly managed, that this style would be peculiarly appropriate for the High School of the city of New York, and was also well adapted to the materials of which it was proposed to construct the building, many of the old halls and colleges being built of brick. The architect, Mr. Renwick, of New York, in a letter to the President of the Board of Education, remarks,

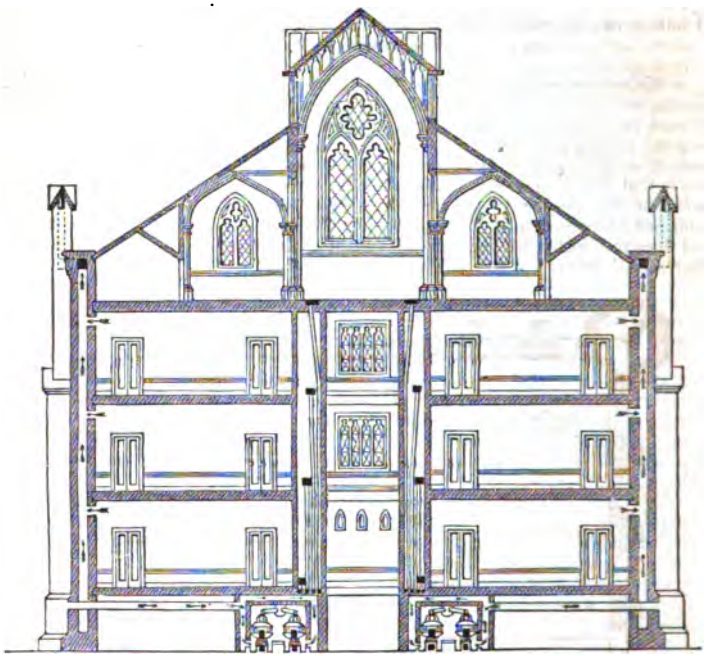
"I am confident that the style I have adopted is, at the same time the strongest, the cheapest, and the one best adapted to the purposes of heat and ventilation, being the only one, except the Norman, in which chimneys and flues become ornamental, and a roof of high pitch, necessary for external beauty, and capable of being intersected by dormer windows, which latter will add to the beauty of the building and to the convenience of lighting and ventilating the great hall, in the roof.

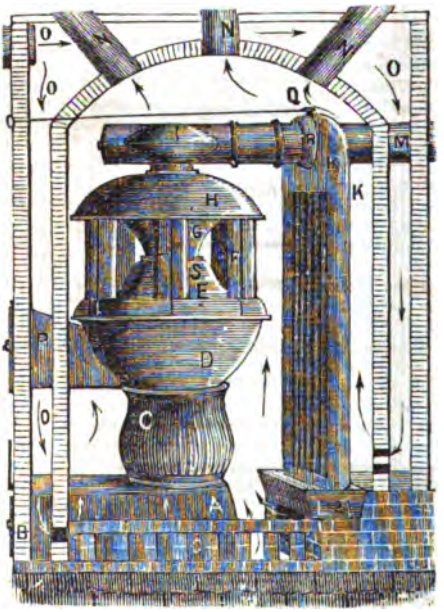
"As you (the Board) have proposed, with perfect correctness, to make the great hall in the Gothic style, for it can be in no other order, placed in such a position immediately beneath the roof, and is capable of being made highly ornamental in such a place, I was of opinion that the exterior of the whole building should accord with it, as, if it were planned in any other style, it would appear inharmonious, and therefore produce an unpleasant effect on the mind by its incongruity. The height of the building, too, the great pitch of the roof, and the numerous chimneys and ventilating flues necessary to render the arrangement perfect, would entirely preclude the adoption of the Grecian, Roman, or modern Italian styles, with any good effect, apart from their being much more expensive, and less beautiful.

"I have entered at length into the reasons which guided me in the adoption of a style for the building, because it might at first sight appear expensive, and therefore improper for such an institution. You will at once perceive the great strength which the buttresses impart to the building, and the consequent reduction in the thickness of the walls. These buttresses will also serve for ventilating flues, which in such a building should be of large size, in order to prevent, as far as possible, any friction from interfering with the passage of the currents of air, an end which can only be attained by large and smooth flues."

The dimensions of the building are as follows: The length of the building, exclusive of all projections, is 125 feet, and the breadth 80 feet. The height, to the eaves, 65 feet, and to the top of the gable, 100 feet. The height of the towers, 110 feet

The building is divided into a basement, three stories, and a great hall under the roof. The basement is nine feet in height, and is arched to afford ground for exercise in bad weather. In it, also, are the janitors' lodgings, the chemical laboratory, and the closets for the hats and clothes of the students. The first, second and third stories are divided into four great rooms by two wide, spacious halls, which are carried through the centre of the building longitudinally and transversely. Two of these rooms, on each floor, are again divided, affording smaller rooms for recitation, &c. Above these stories is the great hall, 125 feet long by 60 feet in breadth, divided by the king and queen posts of the roof, which are made ornamental, into three aisles, the centre one of which is 40 feet in height, and the two side aisles each 20 feet in height. The ceiling of this room is of wood immediately under the roof, of which it forms part, and it is ornamented with carved ribs of wood, in the manner of the old college halls at Oxford and Cambridge. It is lighted by windows at the ends and by dormers in the roof, and when finished, will probably be the largest and finest collegiate hal. in this country.





A. Iron or brick ash-pit.
B. Ash-pit door.
C. Pot, or coal Burner, with or without *soap-stone* lining.
D. Fire chamber.
E. Lower half of tubular drum.
F. Elliptical tubes.
G. Upper half of tubular drum.
H. Top of tubular drum.
I. Cap and smoke-pipe.
K. Flat radiator.
L. Water basin or evaporator.
M. Smoke pipe to chimney.
N. Conductors of hot air.
N. Cold air conductor and chamber.
P. Feed door.
Q. Hot air chamber.
R. Damper in globe with rod attached.
S. Pendulum valve for cleaning.
+ Shows the direction of the currents of hot or cold air.

Fig. 3.—CULVER'S FURNACE.

The mode of warming and ventilating the several apartments of the Free Academy can be easily understood by consulting Figures 2, 3 and 4. Four of Culver's furnaces are set in the basement, as shown in Fig. 3. A large quantity of fresh air from out of doors, after being warmed by these furnaces, is carried up to the several stories by pipes in the division walls, (Fig. 2.) and is admitted into the rooms at a convenient point, as indicated in Figures 5 and 6. The air of each room, as it becomes vitiated by respiration, is discharged by openings near the ceiling into the buttresses, which are constructed hollow and finished smooth, so as to constitute large ventilating flues. Each opening is fitted with one of Culver's Ventilators or Registers, with cords attached, by which the capacity of the opening for the discharge of vitiated air can be enlarged and diminished at the pleasure of the teacher. The practical working of the furnaces and flues for ventilation, secures the object aimed at—a genial and pure atmosphere at all times.

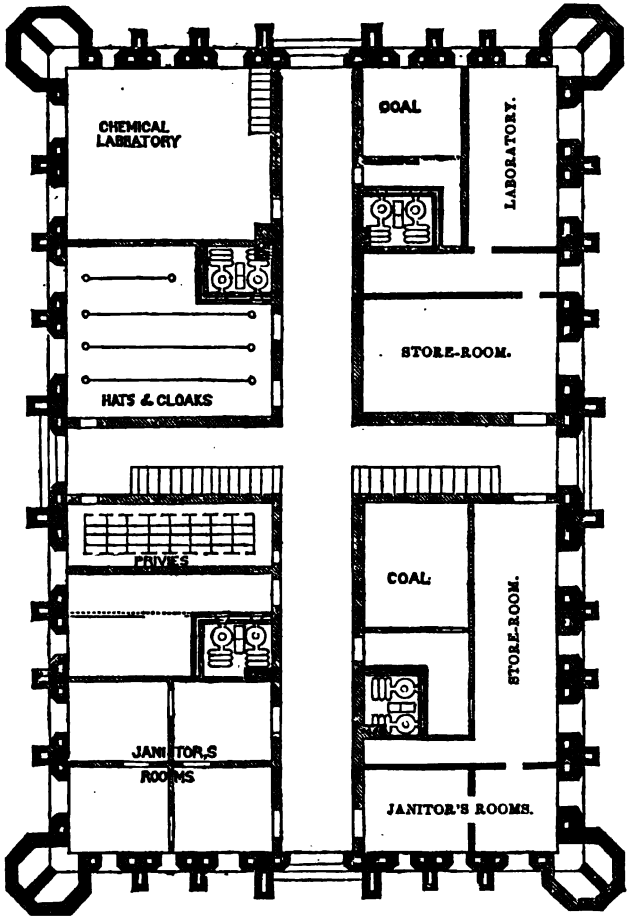
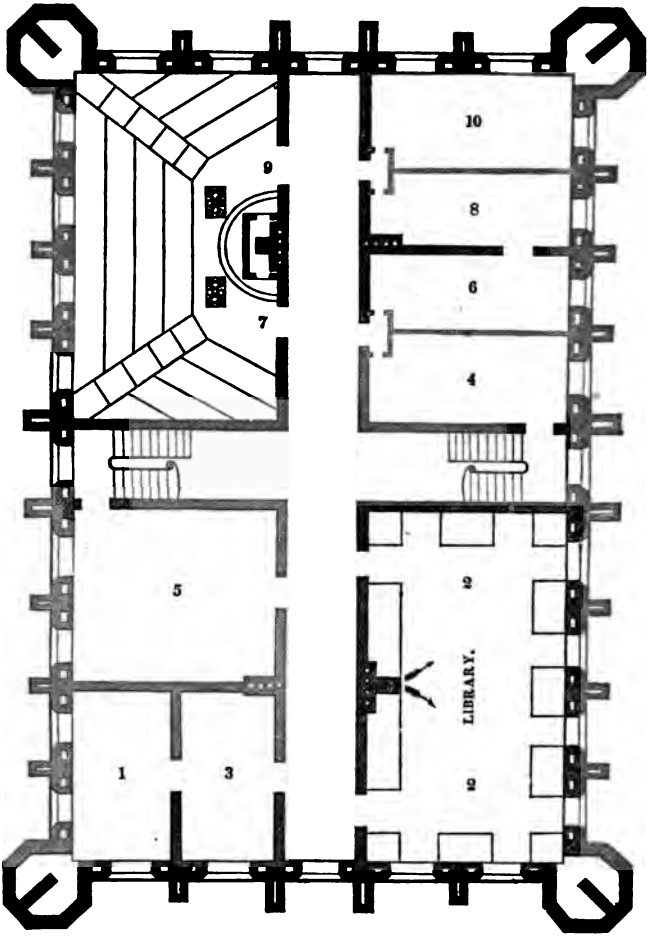


Fig. 3.—Basement Floor.

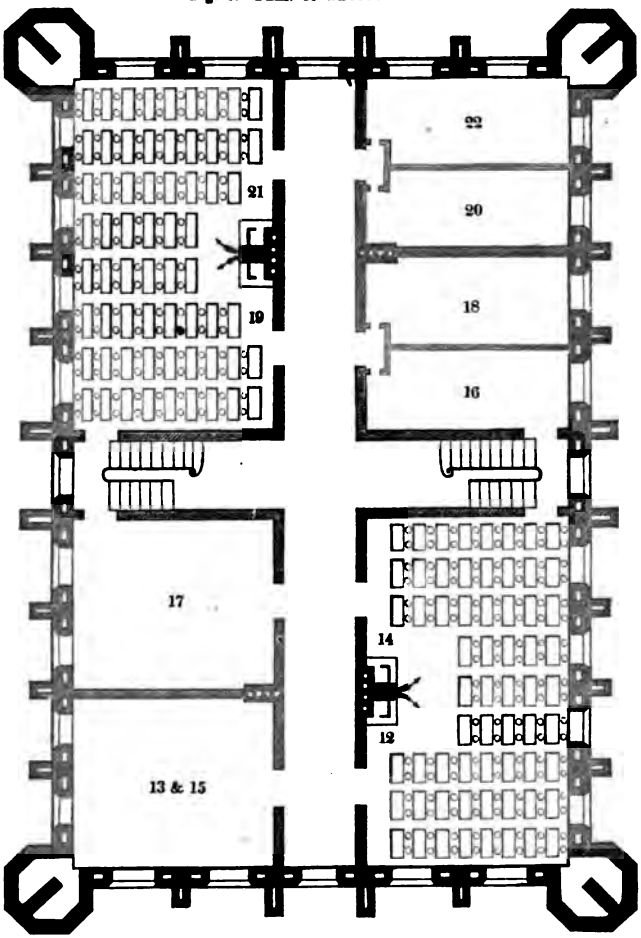
The above cut gives an incorrect view of the exterior of the building, but a good idea of the internal arrangement of the basement story.

Fig. 5.—Plan of First Story.



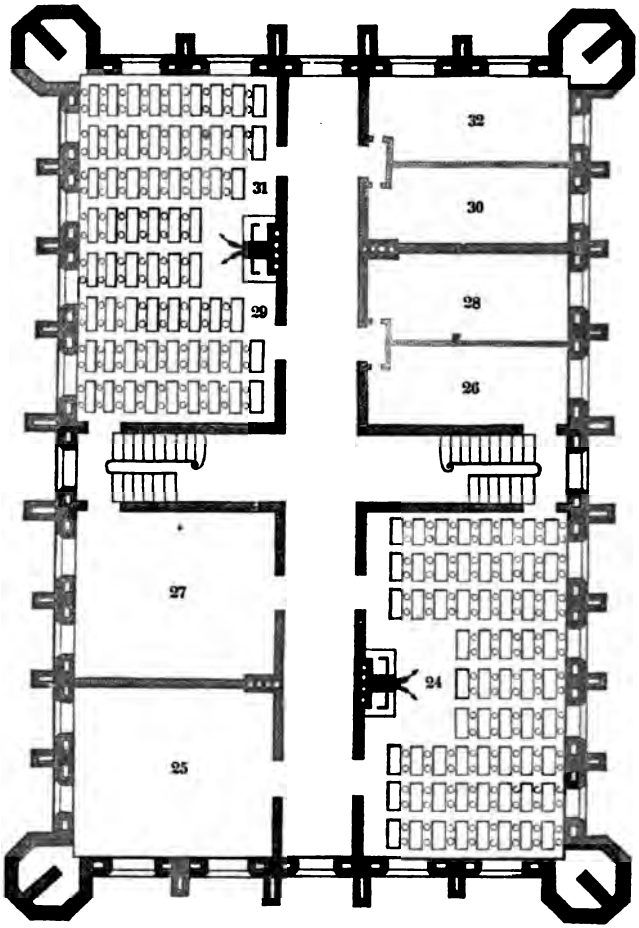
Nos. 1. Office of Principal.
2. Library.
3. Depository of Text-Books.
4. Class Room in Mathematics.
6. Professor in French.
7 and 9. Lecture Room.
8. Class Room in Mathematics.
10. Professor of History and Belles Letters.

Fig. 6.—Plan of Second Story.



Nos. 13 and 15. Professor of Civil Engineering.
12 and 14. Study Hall.
16. Class Room for Tutor in Mathematics.
17. Study Hall.
18. Class Room for Tutor in Moral Philosophy.
19 and 21. Drawing Hall.
20. Professor of Ancient Languages.

Fig. 7.—Plan of Third Story.



Nos. 24. Study Hall.
25. Professor of Mathematics.
26. Class Room for Tutor of Moral Philosophy.
27. Study Hall.
28. Class Room for Tutor of Rhetoric.
29 and 31. Study Hall.
30. Class Room for Tutor of Rhetoric.
32. Professor of English Literature.

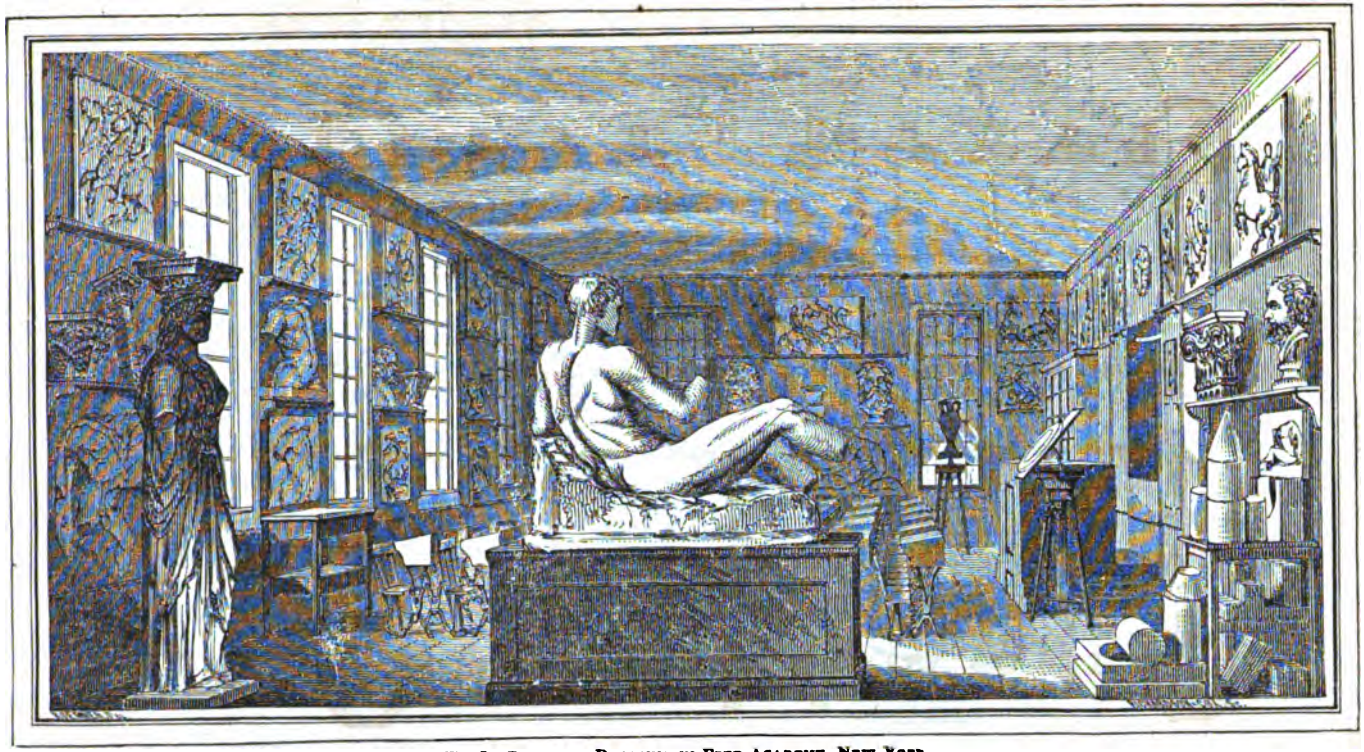


Fig. 8.—Room for Drawing in Free Academy, New York.

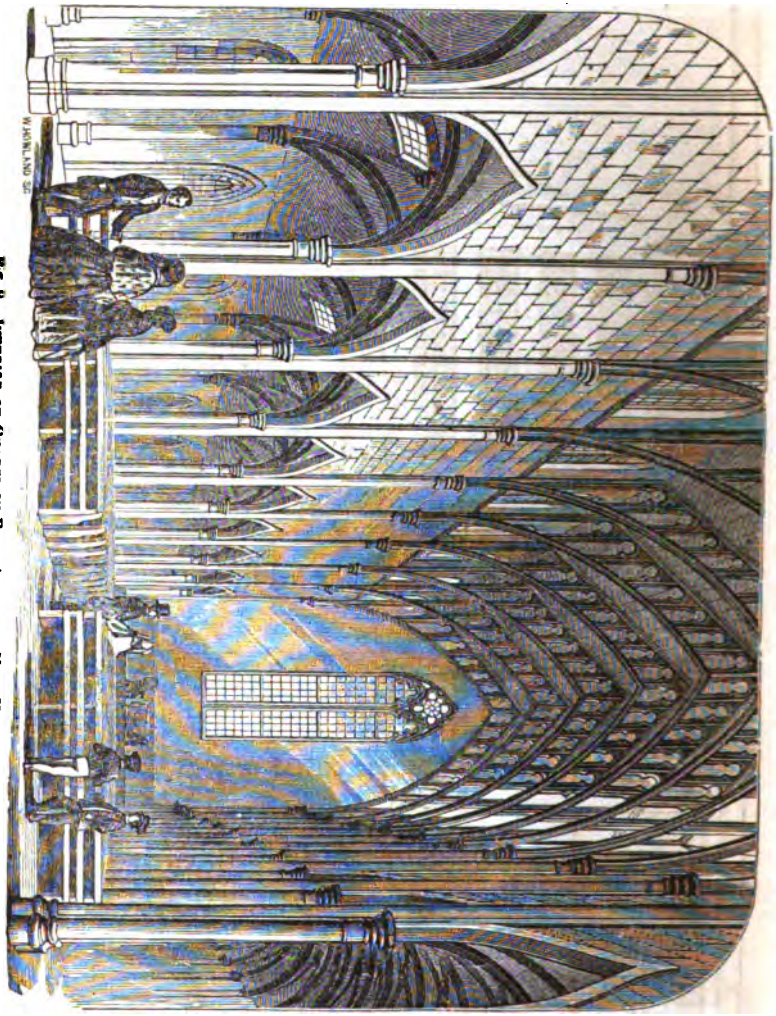


FIG. 9.—INTERIOR OF CHAPEL IN FREE ACADEMY, NEW YORK.

Plans and Description of the Academy Building, Rome, N. Y.

We are indebted to Edward Huntington, Esq., for the following plans and description of the new Academy building recently erected in Rome N. Y., under his supervision. The building is 70 feet by 44 feet on the ground.

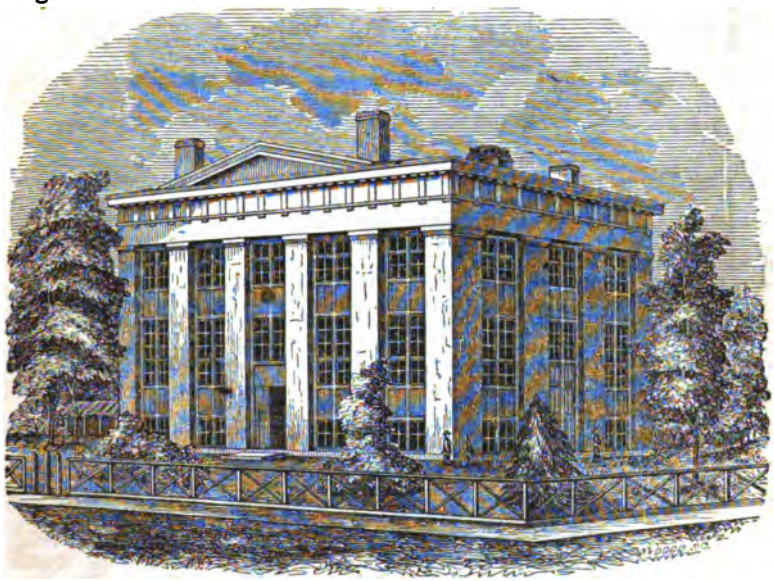
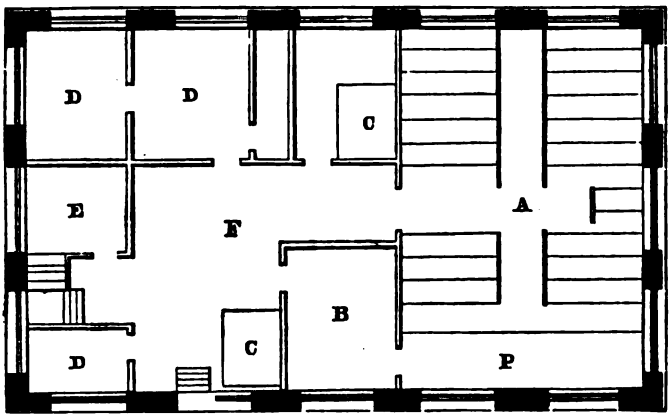


Fig. 2. Basement.



A—Lecture-room and Chapel. B—Laboratory. C, C—Furnaces.
D, D, D—Janitor's rooms. E—Entry. F—Hall.

The building was erected in 1848, on a lot 198 by 170 feet, on the corner of Court and James streets, fronting the public square, and is of brick, 70 by 44 feet on the ground. The basement wall, up to the water table, is of stone, laid in hydraulic cement. The roof is covered with tin, laid in white lead.

The basement, 10 feet high in the clear, contains a lecture-room (which serves also as a chapel,) 26½ by 40 feet, with comfortable seats to accommodate conveniently 200 pupils. The floor descends 2 feet from the rear of the room to the platform, giving 12 feet height immediately in front of it. A laboratory, 12 by 15½ feet, adjoins the lecture-room, with which it communicates by a door at the end of a platform. The remainder of the basement floor is occupied by the furnaces for warming the building, and by the rooms of the Janitor.

The First Floor is occupied by the male department, and consists of a school-room about 30 by 54 feet, and nearly 15 feet in clear height, with two recitation-rooms, entries, &c. There are 62 desks, each four feet long and accommodating two pupils.

On the Second Floor are the girls' school-room, about 28 by 40 feet, with seats for 76 pupils, 2 recitation-rooms, library, hall, and room occupied by Primary department. There is a large skylight in the centre of the girls' school-room, and another in the library. The rooms are 15 feet in height.

The building is thoroughly and uniformly warmed by two furnaces in the basement, and a change of air is secured by ventilators at the top of the rooms, and also near the floor, opening into flues which are carried up in the chimneys. The warmth imparted by the smoke which passes up in the adjoining flues secures a good draft. In the upper story additional means of ventilation are furnished by the skylights, which can be partially opened.

The desks are of varnished cherry, similar in form to Ross's school desk.

Fig. 5.

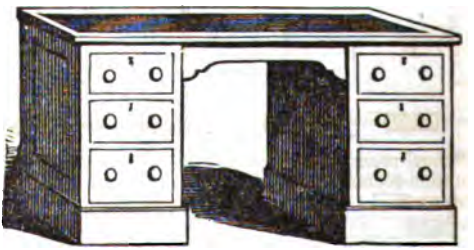


The supports are of wood, however, instead of cast-iron, and the seats are easy Windsor chairs. Both seats and desks are firmly secured to the floor by small iron knees and screws.

The school and recitation rooms are all furnished with large slates set in the wall, in the room of blackboards.

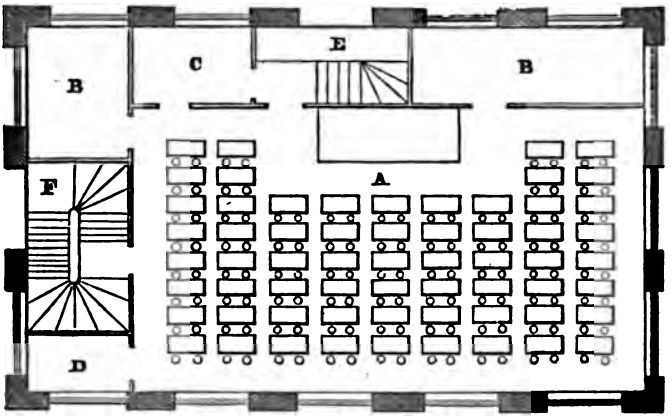
The teachers' desks in the school-rooms are similar to Fig. 6.

Fig. 6.



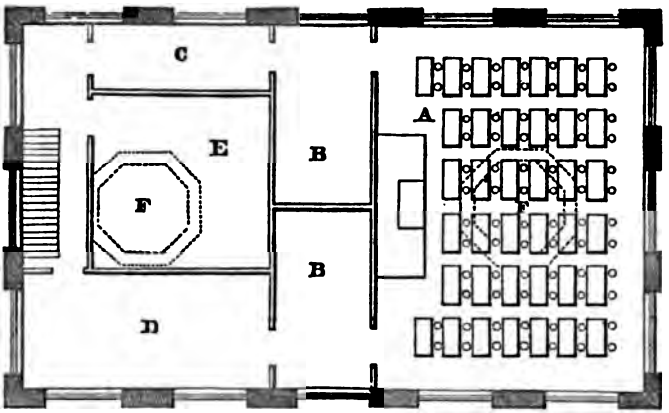
The whole cost of the building, including furnaces, scholars' desks and chairs, slates and inkstands, was about 6,000 dollars.

FIG. 3. PLAN OF FIRST FLOOR.



A—Boys' School-room, with 124 seats.
B, B—Recitation-rooms.
C—Dressing-room.
D—Closet for Apparatus.
E—Entrance for Boys.
F—Entrance for Girls.

FIG. 4. PLAN OF SECOND FLOOR.



A—Girls' School-room, with 76 seats.
B, B—Recitation-rooms.
C—Dressing-room.
D—Primary Department.
E—Library, lighted by skylight.
F—Skylight in ceiling.

Plan, &c., of East School, Salem, Mass.

The lot on which the house stands extends from Essex street to Bath street.—There is a sufficient passage-way on each side of the house, and access from each street. The north end faces the common, which affords the most ample play-ground, always open.

The exterior dimensions of the building are 136 by 50 ft. The school-rooms are 65 by 36 ft. and 15 ft. high, each: the space in front of the desks, 65 by 4 ft. 6 inches; the space occupied by the desks, 59 by 25 ft.; the space in rear of the desks, 65 by 6 ft. 6 inches; the floor of which is raised 8 inches above the floor of the rooms; the side aisles are 3 ft., and all the other aisles 18 inches in width.

The desks are so placed that the scholars sit with their faces towards the partition which separates the school-room from the recitation rooms, the light being thus admitted in their rear and on one side.

The desks are 4 ft in length, and of four sizes in width, the two front ranges being 16 inches, the two next 15, the two next 14, and the two next 13. The desks are also of four sizes in height; the two front ranges being, on the lower side, 27 inches, the two next 26, the two next 25, the two next 24.

The desks in each school-room are placed in ranges, each range containing eleven desks, and each desk being fitted for two scholars; so that 176 scholars may be received in each department, or 352 in the whole school. The desks are constructed like tables, with turned legs, narrow rails, inclined top and a shelf beneath. The legs and rails are of birch, stained and varnished, and the tops of cherry, oiled and varnished. The legs are secured in the floor by tenons. The tables of the teachers are constructed and finished like the desks of the scholars.

The chairs are also of four sizes; those in the two front ranges being 12 by 12½ inches in the seat, (i. e. extreme width, the sides being of the usual shape of chairs,) and 16 inches in height, and those in the succeeding ranges being reduced in height in proportion to the desks, and also varying proportionally in the dimensions of the seats.

The chairs are constructed with seats of bass wood, and cherry backs; the seats and backs hollowed, and the seats resting on wooden pedestals secured to the floor by tenons and screws.

Upon the front edge of the raised platform, in the rear of the desks, settees are placed, which are of the same length as the desks, and are placed in corresponding positions, with intervening spaces in continuation of the aisles. The settees are placed with the back towards the desks, and are designed exclusively for the use of classes attending reviews before the principals. The settees in width and height correspond to the largest size of chairs, and are constructed of the same materials, and finished in the same style.

In the center and at the extremities of the range of settees, are placed tables, (of 4 by 2 ft. 6 inches, oval shape,) which are occupied by the assistants, during general exercises, when the station of the principal is in front of the desks, the middle one being used by the principal when attending reviews.

Each recitation room (18 by 10 ft.) is appropriated to a single course of study, as marked upon the plan, and is therefore used exclusively by one assistant. Three sides of the room are appropriated to seats, being lined with cherry wood, (oiled and varnished) to a height reaching above the heads of the scholars. The lining is projected at the bottom, so as to furnish inclined backs to the seats, which are constructed of cherry wood, 13 inches in width, 2 inches thick, with hollowed top and rounded edge, supported on turned legs, the height being 15½ inches from the top of the seat to the floor. The fourth side of the room, opposite the window, is occupied by a blackboard of 3 ft. in width, which extends across the space upon each side of the door.

All the spaces between the doors and windows upon the four sides of the

school-rooms are occupied by blackboards. In the spaces between the windows upon the rear, recesses have been constructed, which are fitted with book-shelves, and are closed by means of covers in front, which are raised and lowered by weights and pulleys. These covers are blackboards, and are so finished as to represent sunken panels. Drawers are constructed beneath the blackboards to receive the sponges, chalk, &c.

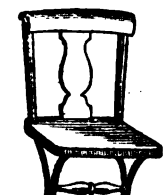
Circular ventilators are placed in the ceiling of each school-room and recitation room; three in each school-room of 3 ft. in diameter, and one in each recitation room of 2 ft. in diameter. These ventilators are solid covers of wood, hung with hinges, over apertures of corresponding size, and raised or lowered by means of cords passing over pulleys, through the ceiling into the room below, the cords terminating in loops, which are fastened to hooks in the side of the room. When the ventilators are raised, the impure air escapes into the garret, the ventilation of which is also provided for by means of the circular windows in the gable ends, which turn on pivots in the center, and are opened or shut by cords passing over pulleys in the same manner as the ventilators.

Each school-room is warmed by a furnace, placed directly under the center of the space in front of the desks, the hot air ascending through a circular aperture of 2 ft. in diameter, which is represented upon the plan. The smoke-pipe, (of galvanized iron) is conducted upward through the center of this aperture, and thence, after passing a considerable distance into the school-room, through one of the recitation rooms into the chimney, which is built in the center of the front wall. The recitation rooms are warmed by means of apertures at the top and bottom respectively of the partitions which separate them from the school-rooms, which being open together, secure a rapid equalization of temperature in all the rooms. These apertures are fitted to be closed, with revolving shutters above, and shutters hung on hinges below.

In the partition wall between the school-rooms, is a clock having two faces, and thus indicating the hour to the occupants in each room. The clock strikes at the end of each half hour. In the ante-rooms, (marked F, F, on the plan Fig. 1) are hooks for caps, overcoats, &c. In each of these rooms, also, there is a pump and sink.

In the *lower story*, there are two primary school-rooms 36½ ft. by 24½ ft., each seating 60 children. Each child has a chair firmly fixed to the floor, but no desk. In the rear there is an appropriate shelf for books, for each pupil, numbered to correspond with the number on the chair. In front of the school, there is a blackboard occupying the distance between the doors, and a desk, at which the several classes stand in succession, and copy appropriate exercises on the slate from the blackboard.

For this school-house, with all its completeness of arrangements and regulations, the city of Salem is indebted mainly to the indefatigable exertions of the late Mayor, the Hon. Stephen C. Phillips. During the three years of his administration, every school-house was repaired or rebuilt, and all the schools brought under an admirable system. On leaving his office, in 1842, he gave to the city for school purposes, his salary for three years, amounting to $2,400, which has been applied to repairing and refurnishing the High School building, which is now a monument of his taste and munificence.



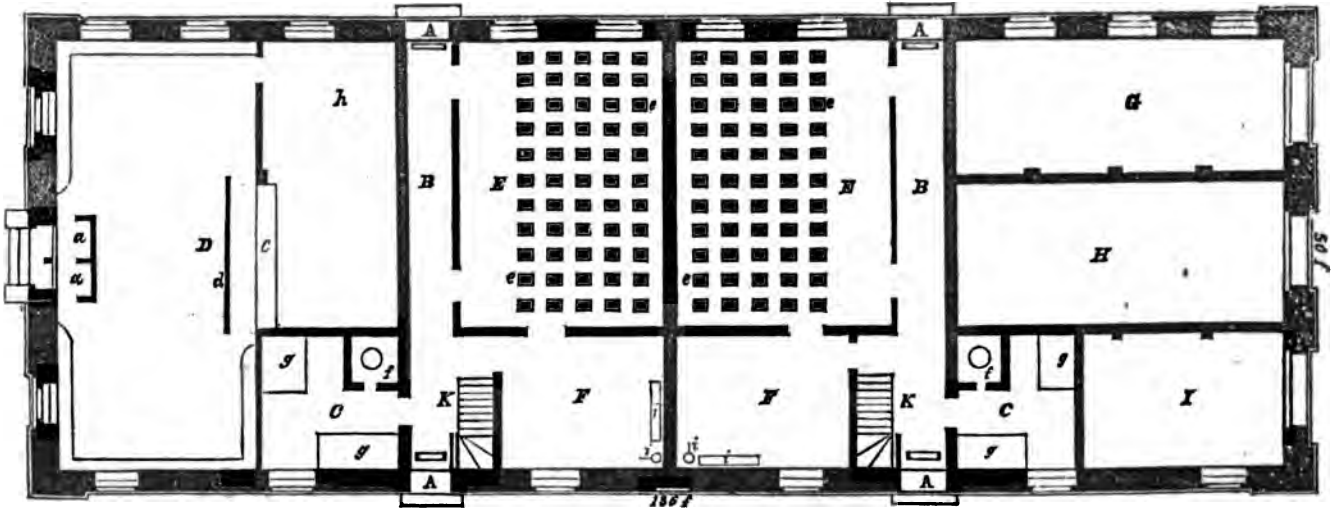
High School Chair.

The High School, and one of the new primary schools, are furnished with "Kimball's Improved School Chair," which for strength, comfort, and style of finish, is superior to any other now before the public.



Primary School Chair

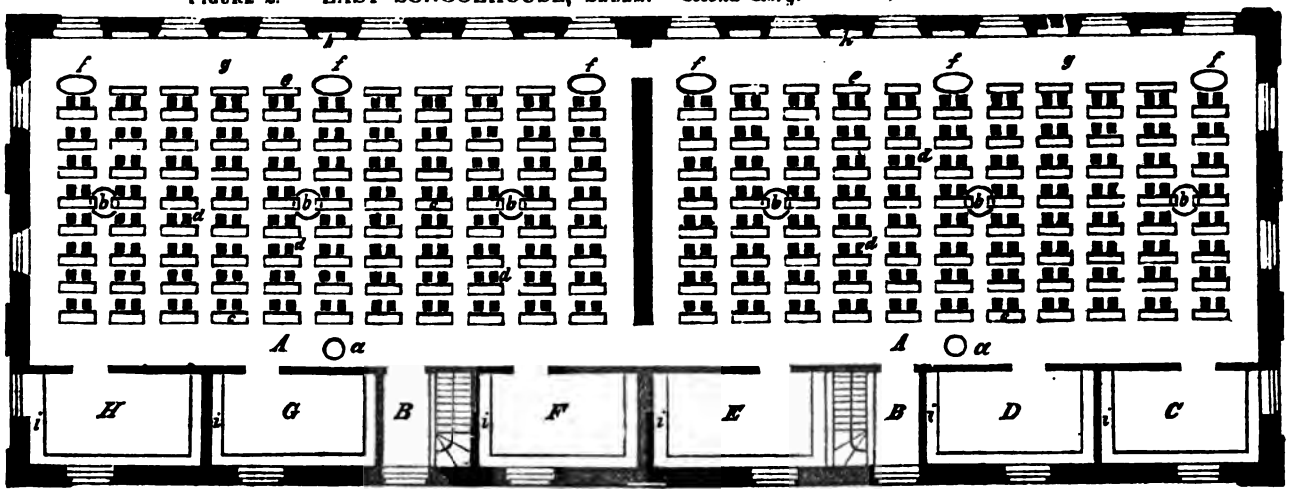
FIGURE 1 EAST SCHOOLHOUSE, SALEM. *First Story.* [Scale 1-20 inch to a foot.]



A, A, A, A—School entrances.
B, B—Passages, 5 feet wide.
C, C—Furnace and fuel rooms, 15 by 13 feet.
E, E—Primary schools, 36.6 by 24.3 feet.
e e—Seats in primary schoolrooms.
F, F—Ante-rooms, 15 by 19 feet.
K, K—Stairs to second story.
f, f—Furnaces.
g, g—Fuel and ash bins.
i, i, i, i—Pumps and sinks

The other apartments in the lower story are occupied for various city purposes, which it is unnecessary here to specify.

FIGURE 2. EAST SCHOOLHOUSE, SALEM. *Second Story.* [Scale. 1-20 inch to a foot



A, A—Schoolrooms, 65 by 36 feet each.
B, B—Entries and stairs from the first story.
C—Recitation room for reading, first course, 17 by 10 feet.
D— " " " grammar, " 18 by 10 "
E— " " " reading, second course, 19 by 10 feet.
F— " " " arithmetic, " 19 by 10 "
G— " " " geography, 18 by 10 feet.
H— " " " arithmetic, first course, 17 by 10 feet

a, a—Hot air entrances.
b, b, &c.—Ventilators, 3 feet diameter, in the upper ceilings of the rooms.
c, c—Desks.
d, d—Seats.
e, e—Settees.
f, f, &c.—Tables for teachers.
g, g—Platform, raised 8 inches above floor of rooms
h, h- Recesses, containing books.
i, i—Seats occupying three sides of recitation rooms

Description of Latin and English High Schools, Salem.

The interior of this building is fitted up in a style of ornamental and useful elegance which has no parrallel in this country.

The Latin School is believed to be the first Free School established in the United States, and probably in the world, where *every person* within certain geographical limits, and possessing certain requisites of study, has an equal right of admission, free of cost. It was founded in 1637, and has continued without interruption, giving a thorough preparation to students for college, to the present day. The English High School was established in 1827.

The walls of the Latin Grammar School are enriched and adorned with inscriptions in the Greek and Latin language and character. These are not merely apothegms of wisdom, but mementoes of duty; they are fitted to inspire the pupils with noble sentiments, and are the appropriate "*Genius of the Place.*"

The interior of the English High School is adorned in a manner no less appropriate and useful.

In the center of the ceiling is the circle of the zodiac, 29 feet in diameter. The ventilator, 3½ feet in diameter, represents the sun, the spots being designated upon the nucleus in conformity to the latest telescopic observation. The divergence of the solar rays is also fully exhibited. The earth is represented in four different positions, indicating the four seasons. The moon also is described in its orbit, and its position so varied as to exhibit its four principal changes. The globular figure of the earth is clearly shown, and lines are inscribed upon it representing the equator, tropics, and polar circles. The hour lines are also marked and numbered. The border of the circle represents upon its outer edge the signs of the zodiac, with their names, and within, the names of the months. The signs are divided into degrees, and the months into days, both of which are numbered. The thirty-two points of the compass are marked upon the inner edge, the true north and magnetic north both correctly indicated,—the variation of the needle having been ascertained by a recent series of observations.

The circle of the zodiac, as thus described, being enclosed within a square panel, the exterior spaces in the four angles are filled up as follows:

The western angle exhibits the planet Saturn, with his rings and belts, as seen through a telescope, and his true size in proportion to the sun, supposing the circle of the zodiac to represent the size of the sun. The eastern angle exhibits Jupiter, with his belts, of a size similarly proportionate. The other primary planets and the moon are described according to their relative sizes, in the southern angle. In the northern angle is a succession of figures, designed to represent the varying apparent size of the sun, as seen from the different planets. In the ceiling there are also two oblong panels, one towards the western, the other towards the eastern extremity. The western panel contains a diagram, which illustrates, by their relative position, the distance of the several planets, primary and secondary, from the sun, which is placed at one end of the panel. The several planets are designated by their signs, and the figures, placed opposite to each, show how many millions of miles it is distant from the sun. The satellites of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and Herschel, are described as revolving in their orbits around their respective primaries. The eastern panel contains a diagram, which illustrates the theory of the solar and lunar eclipses. The moon is represented in different parts of the earth's shadow, and also directly between the earth and the sun.

Upon the four sides of the room, in the space above the windows and doors, eight panels are described, containing as many diagrams, which illustrate successively the following subjects:—

1. The different phases of the moon. 2. The apparent, direct, and retrograde motions of Mercury and Venus. 3. The moon's parallax. 4. The commencement, progress, and termination of a solar eclipse. 5. The diminution of the intensity of light, and the force of attraction in proportion to the increase of the squares of distance. 6. The transit of Venus over the sun's disc. 7. The refraction of the rays of light by the atmosphere, causing the sun or other celestial bodies, to appear above the horizon when actu-

ally below it. 8. The theory of the tides, giving distinct views of the full and neap tide, as caused by the change of position and the relative attraction of the sun and moon.

The two small panels over the entrance doors represent, respectively, the remarkable comets of 1680 and 1811, and the theory of cometary motion as described in the plates attached to Blunt's "Beauty of the Heavens."

The diagram in the large panel upon the north side of the recitation platform represents the relative height of the principal mountains and the relative length of the principal rivers on the globe. The mountains and rivers are all numbered, and scales of distance are attached, by which the heights and lengths can be readily ascertained. The relative elevation of particular countries, cities and other prominent places, the limits of perpetual snow, of various kinds of vegetation, &c., are distinctly exhibited. This diagram is a copy of that contained in Tanner's Atlas.

The diagram in the corresponding panel on the south side of the recitation platform represents a geological section, the various strata being systematically arranged and explained by an index.

The space between the windows upon the north and south sides of the room are occupied by inscriptions in which the diameter, hourly motion, sidereal period, and diurnal rotation of the several primary planets and the earth's moon, are separately stated, according to calculations furnished for the purpose by Professor Peirce, of Cambridge. The hourly motion and sidereal period of the four asteroids are also stated in corresponding inscriptions upon the western side. The diameter and rotation of the sun are inscribed upon the edge of the circular recess beneath the ventilator.

Over the frontispiece, which surmounts the recess upon the teacher's rostrum, is a beautifully executed scroll bearing the inscription,

"ORDER IS HEAVEN'S FIRST LAW."

This motto may be regarded as equally appropriate, whether viewed as explanatory of the celestial phenomena which are figured upon the walls, or as suggesting the principle which should guide the operations of the school.

The clock is placed within the recess, upon the wall of which the course of studies prescribed for the school, and arranged into two divisions, is conspicuously inscribed.

Many of the charity schools of Holland contain paintings of no inconsiderable excellence and value. In Germany, where every thing, (excepting war and military affairs,) is conducted on an inexpensive scale, the walls of the school-rooms were often adorned with cheap engravings and lithographs, of distinguished men, of birds, beasts, and fishes;—and, in many of them, a cabinet of natural history had been commenced. And throughout all Prussia and Saxony, a most delightful impression was left upon my mind by the character of the persons whose portraits were thus displayed. Almost without exception, they were likenesses of good men rather than of great ones,—frequently of distinguished educationists and benefactors of the young, whose countenances were radiant with the light of benevolence, and the very sight of which was a moral lesson to the susceptible hearts of children.

In the new building for the "poor school" at Leipsic, there is a large hall in which the children all assemble in the morning for devotional purposes. Over the teacher's desk, or pulpit, is a painting of Christ in the act of blessing little children. The design is appropriate and beautiful. Several most forlorn-looking, half-naked children stand before him. He stretches out his arms over them, and blesses them. The mother stands by with an expression of rejoicing, such as only a mother can feel. The little children look lovingly up into the face of the Saviour. Others stand around, awaiting his benediction. In the back-ground are aged men, who gaze upon the spectacle with mingled love for the children and reverence for their benefactor. Hovering above is a group of angels, hallowing the scene with their presence.—*Mr Mann's Seventh Annual Report.*

CITY SCHOOL

XI. NEW YORK SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

THE SOCIETY OF TEACHERS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK FOR BENEVOLENT AND LITERARY PURPOSES was formed prior to the fourth of April, 1811, on which day it was clothed with corporate powers by the Legislature of the State, and recognized as having the following officers, viz.:

ANDREW SMITH, *President.*
GEORGE IRONSIDE, *Vice-President.*
EDWARD SHEPHERD, *Treasurer.*
WILLIAM GRAY, *Secretary.*
WILLIAM PAYNE, ALBERT PICKET, and ISAAC GRIMSHAW, *Assistants.*

An Act to Incorporate the Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes. Passed April 4, 1811.

Whereas a number of the teachers of the city and county of New York have formed themselves into a Society or Association for the relief and benefit of decayed teachers and their families, the widows and children of deceased teachers, and for the discussion of literary subjects and the promotion of science among the members of the Society, under the name and title of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes;" and the said Society have, by their petition presented to the Legislature, prayed to be incorporated; *and whereas* the views of the said petitioners appear to be laudable and worthy of legislative patronage and assistance; therefore,

1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly*, That such persons as now are, or hereafter may, become members of the aforesaid Society or Association, shall be, and hereby are ordained, constituted, and appointed a body corporate and politic, in fact and in name, by the name and style of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York, for Benevolent and Literary Purposes;" and that by that name, they and their successors shall and may have succession, and shall be in law capable of sueing and being sued, pleading and being impleaded, defending and being defended in all courts and places whatsoever, in all manner of action and actions, suits, matters, complaints, and causes whatsoever; and that they and their successors may have and use a common seal and may change and alter the same at their pleasure; and that they and their successors, by the name and style of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes," shall be capable in law of purchasing, holding, and conveying any real or personal estate for the use of the said incorporation, *Provided*, that the value of such real and personal estate shall not exceed at any time the sum of two thousand dollars per annum.

2. *And be it further enacted*, That for the better carrying into effect the objects of the said corporation, there shall be a standing committee consisting of seven members, whereof the President, Vice-President, Treasurer, and Secretary of the Society shall always be a part, who shall hold their offices for one year, or until others shall be elected in their room; and such elections shall be held at such times and places as the said corporation shall, by by-laws, from time to time appoint and direct, and that all the aforesaid officers shall be elected by

ballot, by a majority of the members present at such election; and that in case any vacancy or vacancies shall happen in any of the said offices by death, resignation, or otherwise, such vacancy or vacancies shall and may be filled up for the remainder of the year in which they shall respectively happen, by a special election for that purpose, to be held in the same manner as the said annual elections, at such times and places as shall be appointed by the by-laws of the said corporation.

3. *And be it further enacted*, That Andrew Smith shall be the first president, George Ironside the first vice-president, Edward Shepherd the first treasurer, William Gray the first secretary, William Payne, Albert Picket, and Isaac Grimshaw the first assistants, forming the first standing committee, to hold their offices respectively for one year, or until others shall be duly elected in their room.

4. *And be it further enacted*, That the said corporation, or their successors, shall have power from time to time to make and establish by-laws and to alter and amend the same as they from time to time shall judge proper, for appointing the times and places of electing officers, for the admission of new members of the said corporation, and the terms, conditions, and manner of such admission, and the amount of the sums which each member shall contribute to the funds of the corporation, and the time and manner of paying the same; and also for the management, disposition, and application of the property, estate, effects, and funds of the said corporation, for the purpose of carrying into effect the objects thereof, and for fixing the times and places of the meetings of the said corporation for the discussion of literary subjects and other purposes, for determining the nature of, and making by-laws for their library, for the manner of conducting the proceedings of their meetings, and touching the duties and conduct of the officers of the corporation, and for imposing penalties for breaking or violating any of the by-laws, and also such other matters as appertain to the business, end, and purposes for which the said corporation is by this act constituted, and for no other purposes whatsoever, *Provided always*, That such by-laws, and the penalties imposed for violating them, be not repugnant to the constitution and laws of the United States or of this State.

5. *And be it further enacted*, That when any member of the said corporation shall violate and break any of the by-laws so made as aforesaid, or shall become liable to any penalty imposed by any of the said by-laws, and shall neglect or refuse to pay the same, it shall and may be lawful in every such case for the said corporation to expel such member from the said corporation, *Provided always*, That no member shall be expelled otherwise than by the votes of at least three-fourths of all the members present at one of the stated meetings of the said corporation.

6. *And be it further enacted*, That every member expelled from the said corporation in the manner prescribed in the preceding section, shall thereafter be prevented from having or receiving any benefit, emolument, or advantage whatsoever from the funds, property, or estate of the said corporation; and that all payments and advances made by such member to the funds of the said corporation shall be forfeited to the same.

7. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall be and remain in full force and virtue for the term of fifteen years, and no longer: *Provided nevertheless*, That in case the aforesaid society shall at any time divert from or appropriate their or any part of their funds to any purpose or purposes whatsoever other than those intended and contemplated by this act, and shall thereof be convicted by due course of law, that thenceforth the said corporation shall cease, and the estate, real and personal, whereof it may then be seized and possessed, shall vest in the people of this State. *And provided further*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent the Legislature, at any time in their discretion, within the period aforesaid, from altering or repealing this act.

8. *And be it further enacted*, That this act is hereby declared to be a public act, and that the same be construed in all courts and places favorably and benignly for every beneficial purpose therein contained.

This constitution seemed to have expired by nonuser, and was revived by act of the Legislature in 1818.

According to the *Academician* for October, 1818, at the annual election for officers, the following gentlemen were chosen for the year 1818:

President, ALBERT PICKET; *Vice-President*, JABED SLOCUM; *Treasurer*, WILLIAM FORREST; *Secretary*, RICHARD WIGGINS; *Standing Committee*, JOHN W. PICKET, J. HOXIE; *Corresponding Secretaries*, JOHN W. PICKET, AARON M. MERCHANT.

The President, Albert Picket, and T. T. Payne were appointed a committee to draw up a report for publication, detailing the objects of the Teachers' Society. This committee prepared a report, which was published in the *Academician* for October, 1818, and from which we make a few extracts, as throwing light on the condition and aims of the profession at that date:

The improvements in instruction which every day presents, have created a necessity for an association of professional men, by whom these improvements may be tested, embodied, and carried out into their practical applications. The perpetual progress of science, also, by adding to the objects of elementary instruction, requires a corresponding simplicity in the methods of communicating it, and calls for a combination of all the knowledge, ingenuity, and efforts of those who have made the business of education the occupation of their lives.

The aids that may be afforded in this pursuit to native invention and experience, are great and of easy acquisition: they are either such as develop principles in a simple and unbroken order, and accompany them with lucid demonstration, or such as follow out these principles to practical and useful results, and apply to them those mechanical facilities which fit them for the business of a school.

In making this allusion to the formation of a system, your Committee would not be understood to mean, that the members of the Society are to render themselves responsible to the pursuit of a concerted plan, and to receive the *shackles* of a method from the opinion of the majority. Nothing can be wider from the aim of an association which looks forward to the character to which we hope to entitle ourselves.

In the latter of these advantages the English excel; in the former, the systems of the French and the Germans are unquestionably superior. One of the earliest attempts, then, of this association, will be to embody into a system the excellencies of each, and to add to them whatever the intelligence and the observation of the American instructors may furnish.

The objects will simply be, by the aid of foreign correspondence, and communications with our sister states, to collect into a focus whatever information can be procured, and whatever improvements have been proposed on professional subjects; to offer them to the minds of the individual members of the Society; and after having passed through the prisms of their particular judgments, to let them be divided and appropriated as circumstances and disposition may determine. *As the intolerence of sect has been the foe of religion, so the bigotry of system would prove the bane of education.*

An object of primary importance in our plan will be to promote the success and diminish the fatigues of instruction by encouraging as far as possible a division of labor in our profession. An attempt will be made to give some gradation to our schools, with respect to the subjects of education they may embrace. In many of our institutions this has been partially accomplished by dividing the duties among associated instructors. This division has, as we believe, been attended with beneficial results wherever it has been attempted; and, indeed, the objects of elementary instruction multiply so fast upon our hands, that an expedient of this kind becomes not only useful, but essential; and it does not terminate in the comfort of the instructor, but produces incalculable benefits to society at large.

But the distribution of duties in the interior of schools is not all that we hope to effect. To create a succession of separate schools is an object of no less importance. The establishment of a high school, which should receive, after a preparatory examination, such of the pupils of our elementary schools as might

be intended for a collegiate course, will claim the serious attention of our society. The want of an intermediate institution of this nature has been experienced and confessed, and even attempted to be remedied by some of the strongest influence and highest talents of the community in which we live; but whether the circumstances under which this attempt was made were unpropitious, or the systems of *elementary education were not sufficiently matured* for it, or from any other causes for which we can not account, it did not meet with the success which it merited. The importance of such an institution, however, is unquestionable; the necessity of it is still felt; the aspect of things seems favorable to its commencement.

The Committee, after referring with strong expressions of anticipated success to the High School, which Dr. Griscom, "a professional gentleman of acknowledged competency and high reputation, who had retired from a life of successful instruction," was about to inaugurate after the plan of the High School at Edinburgh, set forth the benevolent purposes of the society:

Instances of men who have passed the best part of their lives in the business of instruction, who have worn out their whole strength in the labor which it imposes, and who have been left to drag out their old age in indigence are not rare among us. It is related of Anaxagoras, after he had devoted his existence to the discovery and dissemination of truth, and had numbered among his pupils the most distinguished men of the day, among whom was the powerful Pericles, that he was left to terminate his life by literal starvation. Pericles, feeling at that time the necessity of his counsels, was induced to inquire for him, and discovered him in the most emaciated and desolate condition. He conjured him to live, if not for his own sake, at least because he and his country had need of him. The strength of the old man just enabled him to admonish his pupil, that it was the duty of "those who needed a lamp, to take care that it should never be destitute of oil." Pericles is not singular in his liability to the charge of such ingratitude, nor is his the only age in which the lamps of science have expired for want of the means of nourishing their flame.

The last great purpose of the Teachers' Society is to vindicate for the occupation of its members "the name and character of a liberal profession."

It can not have escaped the notice of any observer of life—it certainly has not escaped the experience of any professional instructor, that the consideration in which his labors are generally held is far below their intrinsic dignity and the station they have a right to claim from their usefulness to society. This may result from many causes, which they can not, and from some which they can, remove. We have reason to hope much from the integrity and unanimity of efforts which this association is calculated to effect; from the improvement of character that the professional intelligence, which it is intended to disseminate, must produce; from the increased attention that prevails in our community on the subject of elementary education; and from the liberal and hearty acquiescence in our views which has been already shown by individuals eminent for their public spirit, as well as for their stations in society. These, as your committee would represent, are grounds enough for a rational expectation that the time is not far distant when the instructors of youth shall be welcomed as brethren by the members of the liberal professions. And why should they not? Setting aside all the examples that antiquity and the history of European literature supply, we find, even in our own country, that many of the very men who have occupied the teacher's desk, have been and are the oracles of our laws, the sages of our senate, and the leaders of our armies. There is nothing, then, in the nature of the duties of an instructor which can disqualify him for occupying an equal rank with men of the other liberal professions.

There are many other purposes of minor importance which time will develop, and which your committee do not consider to be the province of a preliminary report to embrace: They therefore, leave the subject in the hands of the society, confident that a zealous coöperation of its members in their common cause, will produce the most valuable results to themselves as individuals, and to the members of the community in which their duties are to be performed.

XI. EDUCATIONAL MISCELLANY AND INTELLIGENCE.

WILLIAM H. WELLS.

W. H. WELLS retired from the office of Superintendent of Public Schools of Chicago, and, avowedly, from all direct participation in school matters, on the 6th of July, 1864. The occasion was signalized by a gathering of the school officers and teachers of Chicago, which is thus described by the Chicago *Tribune:*

The exercises of the High School were closed at noon to admit the assemblage of the teachers in the High School building in the afternoon to listen to an address by the retiring Superintendent—W. H. Wells—whose resignation, recently tendered, was very unwillingly accepted by the Board. The teachers were anxious to have an opportunity of hearing his parting words of cheer and counsel, and of testifying, in something stronger than words, their high appreciation of his worth. The large room was filled. There were present the members of the present Board of Education, several gentlemen formerly members, and many others who have been prominent in the education of the rising generation in this and other cities. Nearly all the teachers in the public schools in the city were present. The occasion was one of deep interest.

The chair was taken by Levi B. Taft, the President of the Board of Education; he spoke as follows:

The Board of Education have called this meeting at the request of a large number of teachers, in order to give an opportunity to exchange final greetings with Mr. Wells, and to listen to some parting words from him, before his retirement from the office of Superintendent of our schools. I can assure you that the Board have never done an act with so much pain and reluctance as the acceptance of Mr. Wells' resignation. Every effort possible was made in order to induce Mr. Wells to withdraw his resignation, but his failing health compelled him to decline complying with our request. The most cordial relations have ever existed between Mr. Wells and the Board. The utmost harmony prevailed in all our actions. Mr. Wells devoted eight years of the best part of his life to the building up of our schools. His whole soul has been in this work. He has been untiring in his labors, and devoted all his time and energies to the schools. He has had the kind coöperation of our teachers in all his arduous efforts. Our schools are largely indebted to him for the high standard of excellence to which they have now attained. Mr. Wells will carry with him to his new vocation our best and kindest wishes for his success and happiness.

Mr. Wells, the Superintendent, then rose and addressed the assembly, as follows:

Gentlemen of the Board of Education, and fellow teachers:

If we were permitted to live only in the present we should lose half the enjoyment of living. In early years we live largely in the future; later in life we live more in the past. There are also special occasions when memories of the past come rushing thick upon us, and the leading events of many years pass vividly before the mind in the space of a single hour. I am sure I shall be pardoned if I say that I am in a retrospective mood to-day, and my thoughts turn irresistibly to the past. I remember, away back in the reign of Andrew Jackson, when most of those before me were not, and when Chicago was in pinafores, a tall youth of less than twenty winters, in the land of steady habits, in search of a district school. And when he had actually engaged to teach a winter school at ten dollars a month and "board around," and began to feel that he was crossing the line between boyhood and manhood, I well remember such heart-throbbings as were unknown to earlier or later years.

I remember also, with almost painful vividness, that opening morning when this young aspirant for didactic honors walked into an almost empty schoolhouse, leaving his future pupils on both sides of the road—in the fields and on the trees, anywhere and everywhere, apparently unconscious that so important a personage had come among them. And I am in no danger of forgetting the difficulty with which the floor of the room and those long sloping desks were freed from nuts and nut shells, and other contraband articles, and the scattered children persuaded to leave their various pursuits and acknowledge allegiance to the newly inaugurated administration.

I remember those weeks of struggle between inexperience, and anxiety, and determination, and hope, strangely commingling on the one hand, and ignorance, and boy nature, and girl nature on the other. I remember how this young pedagogue, who had just begun to call himself a man, as soon as his school had left for the day, and the doors were finally closed, night after night forgot all his manhood, and sat and wept, until an almost insupportable burden of chagrin and mortification and discouragement had found relief. I remember how the button-holes of his coat which at the beginning of the school would barely reach the buttons, at the close of it would reach far beyond.

All these things, and volumes besides, of which these are but the index, I well remember, though most that has transpired since is lost in forgetfulness. Such was the beginning of an educational life which this week brings to a close.

Among the leading educators of the period to which I am carried by these reminiscences, were James G. Carter, George B. Emerson, S. R. Hall, Wm. C. Woodbridge, and Miss Z. P. Grant, of Massachusetts; T. H. Gallaudet, of Connecticut; Mrs. Emma Willard, of New York; William Russell, of Pennsylvania; and Albert, and John W. Picket, of Ohio. Horace Mann and Henry Barnard were then entirely unknown in the educational world, and the President of our honorable Board of Education was then a school boy—at the head of his class, no doubt, but only a school boy.

The American Institute of Instruction, now the grand patriarch of all the educational associations of the country, was then one year old, and the Teachers' Seminary at Andover, under the care of S. R. Hall, had attained the same age. The educational literature which then formed a complete Teachers' Library consisted of Hall's Lectures on School Keeping, a single volume of Lectures before the American Institute of Instruction, four volumes of the American Journal of Education, edited by William Russell, and a single volume of the Annals of Education, edited by W. C. Woodbridge, together with two or three reprints of foreign works To-day the teacher has his choice from a library of more than a thousand volumes.

I could not then have taught a public school in Chicago, for there was none. But Chicago had then, though unappreciated, a pecuniary foundation for the grandest system of city schools in the world. The section set apart for the support of schools was in the heart of the city, bounded by Madison street on the north, Twelfth street on the south, State street on the east, and Halsted on the west. In October, 1833, all but four of the one hundred and forty-two blocks of this section were sold at auction for $38,865, on a credit of one, two, and three years. The remaining four blocks are now valued at $600,000. The value of that portion which was sold is now estimated at about $10,000,000.

The first public school in Chicago was taught in 1834, thirty years ago, in the First Presbyterian Church, on the west side of Clark street, between Lake and Randolph. The teacher was Miss Eliza Chappel, now the wife of Rev. Jeremiah Porter, who is well known in this city.

In 1839, a special act was passed by the Legislature in relation to the common schools of Chicago, which laid the foundation of the present school system.

The first Board of School Inspectors under the new organization was composed of William Jones, J. Y. Scammon, I. N. Arnold, N. H. Bolles, John Gray, J. H Scott, and Hiram Huguenin. The first meeting of this Board was held in November, 1840, and William Jones was elected Chairman. It is at this date that the written records of the public schools commence.

In 1844, the first public school-house was erected, on Madison street, between State and Dearborn. It was regarded by many as altogether too large and expensive, and the Mayor elected the following year, recommended in his inaugu-

ral address, that the Council should either sell the house or convert it into an Insane Asylum. This is the building now occupied by the Dearborn school.

In 1854, the office of Superintendent of Public Schools was created, and Mr. John C. Dore assumed the duties of the office. The improvements introduced by Mr. Dore were thorough and extensive, and their salutary influence will long be felt in the schools.

When I entered upon the duties of my present position, on the 1st of June, 1856, the number of teachers employed in the public schools was 47. At the present time the number is 223, an increase of more than 400 per cent. In June, 1856, the number of pupils belonging to all the schools was 2,785. In June, of the present year the number was 12,653, being an increase of over 350 per cent.

The Chicago High School was organized soon after I came to the city, and its history to the present time has been a record of continued success. Freed from the trammels of prejudice that exists in many older cities, it was organized as a school for both sexes, and time has fully demonstrated that for Chicago, at least, this organization is wisest and best.

The marked success of the Normal Department is deserving of special mention, and I can not too strongly commend this branch of our system, to the fostering care of the Board of Education and the Principal of the High School. The training received in this department is peculiarly adapted to the wants of our own schools, and most of the graduates are now numbered among the best teachers of the city.

There is another department of our system to which I turn with peculiar pleasure. The largest portion of my time has been given to the Primary Schools. The improvements in primary instruction that have been made in this country during the last eight years have been greater than during the previous fifty years, and I trust we have not been behind our contemporaries in this respect.

In looking at the different branches of our system, the High School, the Grammar Schools, and the Primary Schools, I do not know which should now be regarded as the most successful. All the parts are working harmoniously together, and mutually aiding each other. There are many things yet to be done; many improvements yet to be made. If I had remained in the schools another year, there are two objects on which my heart was specially set, as ends for which I should labor with all the energy that I could bring to bear upon them. The first of these objects relates to the *discipline* of the schools. I believe our schools are as well disciplined as those of any other city. The discipline is as mild, as kindly, as effective. But I believe the element of *self-discipline* in our own schools, and in all schools, may yet be multiplied four-fold, and I more than believe that this increase of self-discipline on the part of the pupils will form an element of untold power in forming the habits and character of those who are soon to control the destinies of the country. The teacher who has the power of cultivating in his pupils the habit of self-discipline is worth two salaries to any school board; and no one can estimate the different effect upon the character of the child, between growing up with the habit of self-control, and growing up with the habit of depending upon the pressure of outward restraint for the daily regulation of his conduct. The teacher who does not now possess this power can in a greater or less degree cultivate it. Fellow-teachers, if there is any one sentiment which I would like to impress upon your minds more strongly than any other, as I take my leave of you and of the schools, it is this: that all school discipline which does not have for its ultimate object, self-discipline on the part of the pupils, is a failure. The second object to which I refer, relates to the use of our mother tongue. Great improvements have already been made in our own schools, and in other schools, in the study of English Grammar; but I have no hesitation in saying that greater improvements are yet to be made in this branch of instruction than in any other. English Grammar professes to teach the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly; and yet it is manifest to every observer that English Grammar as it is now generally taught, does not impart to the pupils, one twentieth part of the power which they actually acquired in the use of the English language. The time will never come when parsing and analysis will be dispensed with, but the time will surely come when instruction in the

art of speaking will consist mainly in lessons which embrace *actual speaking*; in exercises designed to cultivate the art of conversation, of narration, and other forms of speech, by constant and careful practice in the use of these forms; when parsing and analysis will find their appropriate place as collateral aids in connection with the daily living exercises in the use of the English tongue. I have not time here to follow this subject out into details, but I have the satisfaction of knowing that the members of the Board, and the teachers who have given special thought to the matter, agree with me in the views which I have advanced, and I believe that the improvements in this direction which have already been commenced will be continued and increased, till one half of the time which is now consumed in the study of English Grammar will furnish twice the fruit which we now reap.

No portion of my life has been happier than that which I have spent in the schools of Chicago. I do not remember an instance in which I have recommended a measure for the improvement of the schools that has not received the full and ready support of the Board of Education, and the hearty coöperation of the teachers. When I desired to elaborate a graded course of study for the schools, the teachers with one accord gave me their aid in its preparation; the Board of Education adopted it without a discussion; and again the teachers, with labors materially increased, gave their hearty coöperation in making it a success. The cordiality with which my visits to the schools have ever been welcomed, will find an abiding place among the sweetest memories of my life. A thousand tokens of kindness and of confidence have lightened my labors and gladdened my heart from the day on which I entered the schools till the present time; and for all of them, I desire to return to the Board of Education, and to the teachers, my sincerest thanks.

I have never known a more competent, and laborious, and successful body of teachers than that which I meet to-day, in these intimate and endearing relations for the last time. I have the satisfaction of knowing that you are also appreciated by the Board of Education, and I am confident they will soon afford you substantial evidence that they do not intend to leave your services unrewarded.

The change I am about to make is by far the greatest change of my life. It is a deliberate, long considered, and final decision; and I can not but recognize the hand of Providence in presenting so favorable an opening, just at the time it was no longer safe for me to continue the labors and cares of my present office. With the urgent demands of health that I should leave these duties, and an attractive field of labor inviting in another direction, I could not hesitate.

If my purpose had been only half formed, the kind offer of a six months' vacation, with a continuance of salary, might have inclined me to resume these pleasing labors. I may also mention here that I have an old school-mate and friend in Boston, who long years ago kindly commended me for choosing the educational field, but himself persistently turned to commercial pursuits. As time passed on, I still continued to receive his commendation and encouragement, but he has always managed somehow to live in a large house, while I lived in a small one. Again, we both felt a strong desire to visit the old world. He had the means of gratifying his desire, and spent a year amid the classic and hallowed associations of Greece, and Rome, and Egypt, and the Holy Land, while I was compelled to remain at home. And now, singularly enough, just at the time when I have this generous offer of six months' rest, my good friend Hardy, of Boston, sends me an invitation to take a free passage to the Mediterranean in one of his ships. The offer is a tempting one; the two together are very tempting. But I can not be mistaken in respect to the path of duty.

My educational life has already covered a period nearly equal to the average life of man, and I must now lay it down, and turn to pursuits widely different, but I trust not wholly uncongenial. And now, honored gentlemen of the Board of Education, and dear fellow-teachers, as co-laborers we part. May every blessing attend you in your continued efforts to elevate and improve the public schools, and a generation of children be made wiser and better by your self-sacrificing labors.

"Farewell! a word that must be and hath been,
A sound that makes us linger—yet farewell!"

The meeting of the Board was now dissolved, and Mr. Taft left the Chair, which was taken by J. J. Noble, Principal of the Haven School. A meeting of the teachers was organized, and Mr. S. H. White, as Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, submitted the following, signed by S. H. White, J. R. Dewey, Jennie E. McLaren, M. Louise Wilson, and Mary Noble. They were unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, Mr. William H. Wells, Superintendent of the Public Schools of this city, has resigned the position which he has so long successfully filled,

Therefore, Resolved, That we, the teachers in said schools, deeply regret such action on his part, especially as it was made necessary by a proper regard to his health, now impaired by close application to his arduous duties.

Resolved, That in his resignation the Public Schools of this city have lost the services of one to whose untiring labors in promoting their interests they are largely indebted for their past successes and present prosperous condition; and that the cause of popular education has lost one of its ablest and most successful laborers in the promotion of its interests.

Resolved, That his uniform kindness and encouragement have contributed very greatly to the pleasure, as well as the success of the teachers in the Public Schools; that his many very excellent qualities of mind and heart have won for him an affectionate regard, and that his devotion and zeal in the duties of his office furnish an example worthy of imitation by all.

Resolved, That our kind remembrances and best wishes attend Mr. Wells in his new vocation.

Mr. George Howland, Principal of the High School, then rose and advanced in front of Mr. Wells. He bore in his hand a magnificent gold watch—valued at $400—finished in the highest style of art. Mr. Howland addressed the retiring Superintendent as follows:

Mr. Superintendent:—The resolutions that have just been read and adopted seem to require one thing more, and the pleasing duty has been assigned to me, in behalf of the teachers of Chicago, of presenting to you, sir, a visible token of the esteem and kind regard which they express.

In withdrawing from the position which you have so long honored, you are happy in leaving behind you, in the prosperous condition of the schools of our city, a living witness of the faithfulness and success of your labors, and we wish you to take with you to your new vocation, something to remind you of the appreciation with which you have been received by us, who have aided you in giving them efficiency. By your enlightened and comprehensive views, you, sir, have won golden opinions from all true friends of popular education, and it seems but fitting that these opinions should be reflected in our gift. The welfare of our schools has long lain near your heart, and there, too, we wish the remembrance of us to be borne. We have had our *times* subjected to your control, and been under your careful care and supervision, and with a feeling of sweet revenge, perhaps, we have desired to have the tables turned, and see how you would like to have your *time* directed by us, and with what spirit you would bear our *watch*; and be assured, sir, that as often as it shall tell you of us, it will tell also of many a heart among the donors which will ever beat no less true than itself with respect and esteem for you.

The recipient made the following reply in acknowledgement of the literary and horological testimonials presented:

Emotion does not always find relief in utterance. I have no language to express the gratitude I feel for these kind expressions of confidence and esteem, and for this munificent token of sympathy and affection. I have not been in constant communion with you during the last eight years, without making this parting hour one of intense feeling—the strongest of which my nature is capable.

There are times when I love to wander back to childhood's hours, and live over again those early days, when the trials and disappointments of life had not taught me the lessons of sadness which I have since learned. There are

times when, starting from those bright and halcyon days, I love to roam along the pathway of life, culling only the choicest fruits and flowers, and binding them in one rich garland of delighted existence. If my life is spared, and I may hope in years to come to enjoy a retrospective view of all that is bright and attractive in the past, then will this faithful monitor, while it measures the moments as they glide swiftly by, tell also of the many happy hours we have spent together; and then will the sweet savor of these pleasant memories shed its choicest perfumes all around.

For all these manifestations of kind regard, may you receive a rich reward in your own hearts; and may your future lives be as peaceful and happy as they are useful and honored.

This terminated the formal exercises; even more affecting scenes followed. The members of the Board, teachers, and other friends assembled around Mr. Wells and took their leave of him. It was an occasion which will be borne on the memories of all present, through many years of future labor.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

The Superintendent of Public Schools in Boston (J. D. Philbrick) in his Semi-annual Report for March, 1864, remarks:

Attendance is one of the prime elements in determining the merit of a school or of a system of schools, and is therefore a subject which should ever be kept prominent in our school reports. The two most important items of information in respect to attendance are, first, the average number of pupils belonging to the schools as compared with the whole number of pupils of the legal school age; and, secondly, the average daily attendance of pupils as compared with the number belonging.

The per cent. of attendance, as at present reported, is radically defective, and is calculated to do injustice to the teachers, while it does not afford reliable data for drawing conclusions as to the relative merit of the different schools. The defect is occasioned by want of uniformity in respect to the practice of discharging pupils. No rules on this subject having been prescribed by the Board, each teacher is left to his own judgment in regard to it.

The following rules, drawn up by Mr. Wells, of Chicago, have been approved by the most prominent school officers in the country:

RULES RELATING TO SCHOOL MEMBERSHIP.

1. Whenever a teacher has satisfactory evidence that a pupil has left school without the intention of returning, such pupil's name shall forthwith be struck from the rolls; but any absences recorded against the name of the pupil before the teacher receives this notice, shall be allowed to remain, and in making up the attendance averages, such absences shall be regarded the same as any other absences.

2. When a pupil is SUSPENDED from school by any of the rules of the School Board, whether for absence or for any other cause, his name shall be stricken from the rolls.

3. When a pupil is absent from school more than five consecutive school days, for sickness or for any other cause, his name shall be stricken from the roll at the end of the five days, and the absences shall in all cases be recorded while the name remains on the roll; but this rule shall not operate to prevent the *suspension* of a pupil under Rule 2, for a less number of absences, in which case his name will of course be stricken from the roll.

4. For the purposes contemplated in the foregoing Rules, any pupil shall be considered absent whose attendance at school shall not continue for at least one-half of the regular school session of the half-day.

5. In noting the absences of pupils, the short vacations of Fall, Winter, and Spring shall be disregarded, and pupils who are not present on the first half-day of a term after either of these vacations shall be marked as absent, the same as if Saturday and Sunday were the only intervening days.

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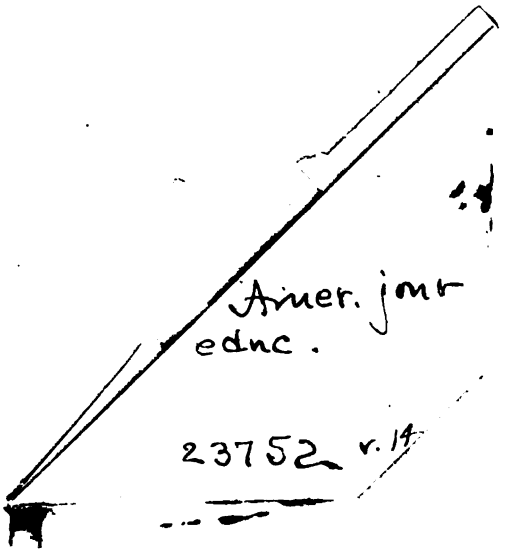
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